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CROWN COLONIES
AND
THEIR HISTORY

THE CROWN COLONIES AND THEIR HISTORY

by
CUMBERLAND CLARK

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"Britain Overseas," "The Pioneers, Builders and Founders
of the British Empire," "The Flags of Britain,"
"Australia Up to Date," "New Zealand," etc., etc.

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PREFACE

IF the great Dominions of Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa were to decide to go their ways independently of the Mother Country, and if the Indian Empire, advanced to full self-government, elected to sever the British connection, Britain would still remain the centre of a vast Empire with dependencies in every continent and sea. She would still rule some three million square miles of territory, and over 65 millions of people.

While the British public hears from its politicians and reads in its newspapers a good deal about India and the Dominions, the Colonial Empire is sadly neglected. Not one person in a thousand could give a reasonably complete list of the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, or tell you anything about them. And yet their importance to Britain is such that her very existence as a great power and a leader in trade and finance largely depends upon them.

Much of the literature on the Crown Colonies is, admittedly, dry and statistical. Moreover, information is scattered among a library of reference books, encyclopaedias and official reports and publications. Yet the history of the Colonial Empire contains many stirring chapters, many examples of heroism, persistence, foresight and enterprise, which make absorbing and comforting reading for British people, especially at a time when as a race we are being submitted to one of the sternest tests in our history.

It seemed worth while to the Author to collect into one handy volume such information about the Crown Colonies as is generally interesting and helpful. How Britain obtained her colonies, what they are like, who inhabits them, what they produce, wherein they are valuable, and how the retention of them is being justified, are subjects that should appeal to any Briton who has true feelings of loyalty for his country. The future is uncertain, energetic rivals are in the field, and the continuance of certain colonies under the British Flag is certain to be challenged. More knowledge on the subject, then, is essential for every voter in our democratic land.

There is no doubt that development in the Crown Colonies is capable of much more rapid progress than has been seen up to now. More must be done to justify the retention of the territories we own. In many of them the rich resources of the country have been barely tapped. There are enormous opportunities awaiting British capital, brains and energy. Rich potential markets can be built up for our manufactures. Almost every raw material needed for modern civilised existence can be obtained from the Colonial Empire. Britain is wealthy beyond the bounds of calculation. Her problem is to make the wealth available for the rightful enjoyment of all her people.

The general aim of Britain's imperial policy is to guide each part of the world beneath her flag up to full responsible government; and the Colonial Empire includes dependencies in every stage of political advancement. Among the Crown Colonies some have gained representative institutions and elect their own members to the Legislative Councils. In the more advanced cases the elected members have a majority: in others

they are in a minority to those appointed by the Crown. In others again the Legislative Councils are composed wholly of nominated members; and in the least developed constitutionally the Governor rules without a Legislative Council at all. In the Protectorates the native government is continued with the advice and guidance of the King's representative. In the case of British North Borneo we have the one remaining instance in which the old system of administration through a chartered company survives; and in the Sudan and the New Hebrides there is a condominium.

Southern Rhodesia, having attained to responsible government, should not properly be included in a book on the Crown Colonies. But as her neighbour, Northern Rhodesia, is still in the tutelage stage, and as it is impossible to describe one half of Rhodes's country without the other, she appears in these pages. Newfoundland, who has already enjoyed a period of responsible government, is given a place because her constitution is temporarily suspended. Other parts of the Empire, where self-government has been granted and withdrawn on finding that the step was premature, return to the old classification. The colonies and dependencies, and there are several, administered by the Indian and Dominion Governments are excluded from this work, which deals only with those parts of the Empire which are under the direct control of Whitehall.

It is the Author's hope that the book will help to interest more of our people in the rich legacy of the Colonial Empire.

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THE CROWN COLONIES AND THEIR HISTORY

CHAPTER I

THE MEDITERRANEAN

FOR centuries the Mediterranean was the undisputed centre of world culture and civilisation. From the fall of Babylon to the discovery of America those who controlled the Mediterranean ruled the earth. With the opening of the great ocean highways, east and west, by the mariners of Spain and Portugal, the advantage shifted to the powers situated on the Atlantic seaboard; and this advantage remained unquestioned until the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, an event that restored to the Mediterranean much of its old prestige and importance.

Long before this short cut to the East was even thought of, Britain possessed herself of the key points of Gibraltar and Malta. In those days the Mediterranean was not a line of imperial communication. The way to India and China was via the Cape of Good Hope. The Roman sea led to no part of the Empire of Britain. After the Suez Canal was completed the value of a short cut was fully appreciated, for by that time British interests in the East had attained immense proportions. For these reasons Disraeli not only acquired for Britain a large block of the shares in the Canal, but followed it up by negotiating with the Sultan of Turkey for the

control of Cyprus, only 240 miles from Port Said. This acquisition lost much of its importance when Britain began to interest herself in Egypt and obtained for all practical purposes a base at Alexandria. But to-day, with Egypt once again a sovereign, independent State, and Malta, our midway stronghold, too uncomfortably near the shores of a power which has interrupted its old traditional friendship with us, Cyprus may come into special prominence in the future.

When we consider the haphazard way in which the British Empire has been built up, there is excuse for believing that Providence has watched over it. It was largely due to moments of inspiration that individuals took steps which later proved to be of almost incalculable value. In many cases the immense advantages that were to accrue could not possibly have been foreseen. There was no deliberate planning, no uncanny prescience, no Machiavellian subtlety, no vaunting ambition. Literally by accident we found ourselves with a handful of trumps without having to declare the suit.

It was in the reign of Queen Anne and during the War of the Spanish Succession, a century and a half before the building of the Suez Canal, that Sir George Rooke took it into his head to seize Gibraltar. He had no instructions to do so. He acted purely on his own initiative. But his action was confirmed by the British Government, and his wisdom and foresight have been endorsed to the full by subsequent history.

Likewise at Malta. The capture of the islands was not an item in Britain's plan of campaign. The Maltese rebelled against Napoleon and the French, and appealed to Nelson to help them with a naval blockade. Once in possession, however, Britain refused to surrender her new conquest, preferring war to evacuation.

With the restoration of importance to the Mediterranean, the strength of Gibraltar dominating the gateway from the Atlantic, and the strategic value of Malta, which all imperial powers of the past had recognised, were not lost upon Britain. She completed her almost impregnable position with the island of Cyprus at the eastern end, as well as establishing her influence in Egypt and maintaining it against all comers.

Vital as Britain's interests in the Mediterranean were understood to be, it was freely acknowledged in London that they were not more vital than those of Italy, whose very life and existence depended upon the freedom of the blue waters. On such mutual recognition of each other's needs was built up that traditional friendship between the two countries which stood both in such good stead through past generations. Italy's struggle for freedom, too, had Britain's earnest sympathy and practical help. In recent years, however, those circumstances of harmony and good sense have been exchanged for a stupid hostility, which has done untold harm to both powers. Conflicting political ambitions have arisen which have borne fruit in crushing armaments, insecurity, suspicion, and underhand methods of injuring the rival. The folly of this is illustrated by a glance at the map of the Mediterranean, where Britain must be seriously handicapped by an unfriendly Italy across her route from Gibraltar to her Eastern Empire, and Italy by an unfriendly Britain across her lines from her homeland to her African Colonies. Never was statesmanship so misdirected as to allow these two Mediterranean powers with identical interests to glare at each other from opposite camps. It is a situation that must be speedily resolved if the peace of Southern Europe is not to be broken. For its resolution it is necessary for

London to recognise that Italy has joined the ranks of 'the imperial and expansionist powers; and equally necessary for Rome to realise that the British Empire is not effete, but going from strength to strength. Happily, a start has now been made along these lines.

GIBRALTAR

For the adventuring Briton, who leaves his Motherland resolved to spread his wings and see and learn something of what his pioneering ancestors have accomplished, Gibraltar is, generally, the first glimpse of the Empire overseas. It is a very imposing start. The Rock, two and a half miles long and from a quarter to three-quarters broad, rears its mighty head 1,400 feet skywards, and dominates the narrow strait, fourteen miles wide, which gives access to the Mediterranean. "Gib," as it is affectionally called by all our globe-trotters, empire-builders and pioneers, looks like an island as one approaches it from a distance. Actually it is joined to the Spanish mainland by a low-lying, sandy isthmus, which it has been mutually agreed to treat as neutral ground. On the east, facing the Mediterranean, it rises a sheer precipice out of the sea. On the south, facing Africa, it is little less steep. On the western side, looking across the Bay of Algeciras, the slope is more gradual and has provided the opportunity for building town and harbour.

No wonder that man in all ages has been impressed by the spectacle of Gibraltar. To the Greeks it marked the western boundary of the world. To the Moors it represented a footing on the European continent of unshakable strength. To the Kingdom of Granada,

who seized it from the Moors, it was deemed impregnable. Nor were they alone in this view. It was the opinion commonly held; and great was the astonishment on all sides when the British Admiral, Sir George Rooke, captured it, with Dutch help, in 1704.

The Rock was ceded to Britain by the Peace of Utrecht, which closed the War of the Spanish Succession in 1713. The Spaniards, who then lived in Gibraltar, left for the mainland, and were succeeded by the motley crew whose descendants constitute the present inhabitants. You do not hear much English spoken by the natives of "Gib." The streets echo with a gabble of tongues, among which a bastard Spanish is most common. There are Italians, Genoese, Jews, Maltese, and a remnant of Spaniards among the 17,000 people who make up the resident civil population.

Britain has put a strict limit to the number of people, outside the British garrison, whom she permits to live on the Rock. Many of those who have jobs in "Gib" have their homes in Spain across the narrow isthmus. A considerable town named La Linea de la Concepcion has grown up across the Spanish frontier. To-day it has outstripped Gibraltar itself. Every morning the workers can be seen streaming across the sand bridge to their place of work, and wending their way home again at "first evening gunfire," that is, shortly after sunset, when Gibraltar's gates are shut. Unless a man is a British subject and engaged upon one of the many duties which the holding of such a mighty fortress entails, he will probably be refused permission to reside in Gibraltar itself. No alien may do so without a permit, and he will require an excellent reason before one is granted.

Spain found it a great deal easier to lose Gibraltar

than to retake it. She made strenuous efforts, some of them soon after Rooke's capture, but without success. On certain occasions she struggled alone: on others she had the help of France. But British sea-power defeated all attacks, and after 1727 the Rock was left in peace for half a century. Then there came what seemed a golden chance to drive Britain out of it. She was at war with France, Spain, Holland, and her revolting American Colonies all at once, and it was argued that a determined assault must succeed. Not only the downfall of Gibraltar, but the downfall of Britain herself was confidently expected.

The heroic story of the four years' siege which Gibraltar withstood during these dangerous and troublous times has often been told. Its inspiration was General Elliot, later Lorth Heathfield, who kept a ring of foes at bay from 1779 to 1783. This would have been impossible, however, if the British fleet had not on several occasions impudently run the blockade and re-victualled the fortress before withdrawing. The great Rodney was the first of the admirals to bring off this daring coup following his victory over de Langara in January, 1780. But the garrison were not content to wait on the sailors. They were constantly thinking of new devices to outwit their besiegers. The most famous of these was the red-hot shot. They used this in 1782 against blockading vessels, which had been specially strengthened to approach within close range of the shore batteries and destroy the defences in a determined effort to batter down the Rock's resistance. The device would have succeeded, for the assaulting vessels were strong enough to withstand any bombardment from the fortress. But the red-hot shot set them on fire, and they were burnt to the water-line and destroyed. Even-

tually the brilliant Lord Howe won a great victory at sea and brought final relief to Gibraltar. Neither in the Napoleonic wars, nor in the Great War, nor in any other time of trouble has the Rock been in danger since the days of the great siege.

Gibraltar is quite a pleasant place to be stationed at. The town, which is concentrated at the north-east corner of the Rock, facing the Bay of Algeciras—the only place where a town could be built—is fairly modern, has a few handsome buildings, one good main street, well paved, and numerous excellent shops. The buildings are constructed at all levels. Very little of the ground is flat. The roads wind up and up, and one in fact attains the summit. For those who like ruins and ancient remains, there are relics of old Spanish and Moorish buildings to interest them. Some of our sailors who fell at Trafalgar are buried in a cemetery at Gibraltar, an appropriate memorial in a place whose continued existence within the Empire depends upon the Navy. There is a theatre, but for such pastimes as hunting, golf and racing, devotees must cross to the Spanish mainland, where they will find their amusements catered for.

Those who dislike the cold of winter will be happy at Gibraltar. There is nice warm sunshine nearly all the time, for the spells of bad weather do not last long. The rainless summer months of June, July and August are hot; and these are followed by the heavy rains of the Autumn. The rains are important to the water supply, and as much as possible is stored away in underground tanks, which are hewn out of the solid rock. There the water is kept cool. Water for purposes other than drinking may be pumped from the Spanish flats, but it is brackish and not very pleasant. When the

raïns are good, flowers and shrubs flourish, and add a gay note of colour. But the hot sun of summer may scorch up the gardens, particularly those at a high level.

Gibraltar is primarily a naval and military base. Several thousand troops are stationed there, and their Commander-in-Chief is the Governor of the Crown Colony. He is assisted by an Executive Council, but there is no Legislative Council. Britain's whole interest in the place has been as a fortress and harbour. By means of moles an area of 440 acres has been enclosed, including 260 acres of deep water, which meet all the needs of the British Mediterranean Fleet. The peninsula itself bristles with cannon of the latest design and heaviest calibre. The rock is honeycombed with galleries, where provisions, ammunition, and stores of all kinds are kept ready for any emergency. A dock-yard can undertake all necessary repairs and overhauls, and the signal service has a station which is one of the most important links in the network of imperial telegraphic communication.

One thing Gibraltar lacks, and it is a serious handicap in present conditions. There is no room for an air base. In modern warfare the Rock is peculiarly open to attack from the air, and this renders it far less impregnable than in the days before the new weapon was introduced. Moreover, it is extremely doubtful if it could offer the same brave and obstinate resistance as formerly against the devastating fury of modern gunfire. During the Spanish Civil War there was some excitement following the rumour that heavy artillery of German origin had been mounted in Spanish territory under General Franco, and constituted a threat to Gibraltar. Voices were raised in favour of evacuation

and the transference of Britain's Watch-tower over the Mediterranean across the Straits to Africa.

How "Gib" would fare if a direct attack were made upon it with the full strength of modern weapons, it is not possible to say. One thing is certain. If Britain decided to defend it, it would put up a fight that the assailants would have good cause to remember.

MALTA

In the past the power that held Malta was mistress of the Mediterranean. Greeks, Phoenicians, Carthaginians and Romans, as each race rose to the dominant position on the tideless sea, included the group of islands—Malta, the smaller Gozo to the north-west, and the little island of Comino between the two—in their empire. It was during the Roman era that St. Paul was wrecked upon what was then called Melita, and planted the seeds of Christianity which bore fruit a hundredfold. These seeds were not uprooted during that long, dark period when the islanders were beneath the heel of the Moors. Deliverance came in 1090, when they were taken under the wing of the Christian kingdom of Sicily.

After nearly 450 years of Sicilian rule, Malta was given to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, that Order recruited from the noble families of Catholic Europe, which devoted itself to the defence of Christianity against the infidel. Driven from Jerusalem to Rhodes, and from Rhodes into the west, the Knights built in Malta a stronghold for Christendom. Their fortifications were severely tested in 1565, when the Turks besieged the island at the very height of their

power. A magnificent resistance was put up under the leadership of the Grand Master, La Valette, which not only successfully defied the Turks, but put a western limit to the Moslem tide.

The Knights remained masters of Malta until the day of Napoleon. That all-conquering republican drove them out and garrisoned their islands with French troops. The Maltese, descendants of the original colonisers of Phœnician stock, rebelled against the new and advanced principles of freedom and equality, which were applied rather too swiftly and thoroughly to a population which had been quietly governed by aristocrats for centuries. They rose against Napoleon's men, and sent a confident appeal to Nelson and the British Fleet. The great admiral established a blockade, landed troops, and took possession of the islands for Britain.

It was not the intention of the British Government to retain Malta. Nelson had seized it in the name of the King of Sicily; but the Treaty of Amiens, which in 1802 brought a short-lived break in the Napoleonic Wars, gave the islands back to the Knights of St. John. This did not please the Maltese at all. They argued that the Order was too effete to protect them, and that the French would certainly return. They persuaded their British protectors to stay. Napoleon ordered evacuation, but Britain refused, and the war was renewed. With the downfall of the French Emperor, Malta was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris, 1814. The Maltese were overjoyed. They felt safe under the flag and were confident that the same rights of religion and language, which Britain had granted to the people of Quebec, would be granted to them.

, There has been considerable difficulty in introducing

English representative institutions in Malta. Many experiments have been tried, but deadlock has ensued. The Maltese have not been found able to work a constitution satisfactorily according to British ideas and principles. The ever-present problem is to reconcile the constitutional rights of the Maltese population with the position of Malta as the chief naval base of Britain in the Mediterranean. A forward policy was handicapped from the start by the lack of any education among the Maltese generally, and by the opposition of interested parties to measures intended to reduce that handicap.

During the World War the Maltese rendered great services to the British cause. They not only garrisoned their own islands and supplied the mine-sweepers with seamen and stokers, but they recruited labour battalions for Gallipoli and Salonika, and performed many duties in hospitals. Britain, anxious to reward this loyalty, introduced responsible government in Malta in 1921. Unfortunately it was a failure. After more than one suspension, it had to be revoked in 1936.

When the constitution was granted, English was the official language of the administration, and Italian of the Courts of Law. Members of the Legislative Assembly could speak in English, Italian and Maltese, as they preferred. After bitter controversy, Italian, for political and other sufficient reasons, was dropped in 1934 in favour of Maltese for the Law Courts; and to-day no Italian is taught in the schools.

It was not the intention of Britain, when revoking the constitution of 1921, to place Malta permanently under a Crown Colony system of government. Accordingly, a new constitution has been prepared, under which the Maltese elect to the Council of Government representatives equal in number to those nominated by

the Governor acting for the Crown, thus recovering a considerable measure of self-government. The thorny question of language, which caused so much trouble during the previous experiment, together with the question of defence, has been excluded from those that can be discussed by the Council. A more liberal system will, no doubt, be introduced in due course if this new constitution is found to work successfully.

In the face of modern armaments the position of Malta has lost much of its old security. It is less than half an hour by fast aeroplane from Italian territory in Sicily. It is 200 miles from the African coast, and lies between Italy and her African colony of Libya. It faces the island of Lampedusa, which under Signor Mussolini's régime has been strongly fortified. The islands are particularly vulnerable to the bomber and the submarine, and during the tense period of the Abyssinian War, when Anglo-Italian relations threatened to snap at any minute, the British Mediterranean Fleet was moved to Alexandria under the fear that Malta might prove a death trap. Its value in future wars will obviously depend largely upon who the enemy is.

The absence of the warships from Malta is a serious matter for the inhabitants. The quarter of a million Maltese are very largely dependent upon the services rendered to the British naval and military forces for their livelihood. Although the available land is highly cultivated and oranges, potatoes, and other articles are successfully grown, the people have to spend most of the wages they earn from the British Government in paying for imports of food. The famous Maltese lace still gives employment in its making to thousands of women, and many win a livelihood from buttons, brewing, and pipe-making, but it is shipping that is the

great industry of Malta. Owing to its geographical convenience as a distributing centre the island has long been a great emporium of trade.

• The Maltese islands possess many safe anchorages, but the best of them are the two that lie cheek by chowl on the north-east coast of Malta. The larger of these is known as the Grand Harbour, one of the finest in the world, where the deep water and absence of tides make it possible for large vessels to anchor alongside the shore. This wonderful sheet of water has long fulfilled all the Mediterranean needs of the British Fleet. The other and smaller harbour is called Marsamuscetto, or western harbour, and is used by merchant shipping.

On the tongue of land separating the two harbours stands Valletta, the modern capital of Malta. It is named after the famous Grand Master, La Valette, who held Malta for the Knights against the Turkish onslaughts. At the end of the promontory stands a fort commanding the narrow quarter-of-a-mile entrance to the Grand Harbour. Valletta was founded in 1566 and now contains about one tenth of the whole population of the islands. The high rocky ground on which it stands, the solid, flat-roofed buildings, the paved streets which run along and across the ridge, and the steep flights of steps leading from the water's edge, make the Maltese capital an imposing and impressive sight to one steaming into the Grand Harbour for the first time. The old Palace of the Grand Master, now the residence of the Governor, the Church of St. John, the auberges, or lodges, of the Knights, the Maltese museum, and many other buildings of note, including the fortifications, proclaim Valletta a worthy capital of the historic island group.

The antiquarian will find much to interest him in

Malta. Eight miles from Valletta is the old capital of Mdina which it superseded. Mdina's own population has fallen below the thousand mark, though its suburb of Rabat is a flourishing town of 10,000 people. For its archaeological remains Malta is famed the world over. There are well-preserved monuments of various civilizations which have swept over the islands, and ruins of megalithic buildings have been found which, it is confidently stated, date back to 4000 B.C. Quite unique is Hal Saffieni Hypogeum, an underground metropolis, 5,000 years old. The Museum of Valletta holds some of the most interesting and valuable relics in the world, including bones of hippopotami and elephants found in the islands.

Most Britons who have devoted their lives to the service of the Empire, particularly those in the Navy or Army, sooner or later perform a short or long spell at Malta. Though decidedly warm in summer, the climate is not tropical, and except for the so-called "Malta fever," not a very serious complaint, the sojourn is likely to be a healthy one. The warm and pleasant winter at any rate appeals to many people. The Sirocco, or warm wind from the Sahara, may raise the temperature to 100 degrees Fahrenheit in the spring or autumn, but the prevailing winds are from the north-east, bringing with them conditions that are appreciated by those hardened by the vagaries of the British climate.

Whether those who guard the long lines of Britain's imperial communications to the East will in future become more familiar with Cyprus than Malta, only time will show. The trend of world politics may decide that our strategic position will be stronger if the eastern island assumes in great part the role hitherto filled by the Maltese group.

CYPRUS

The chain of Britain's strong points in the Mediterranean is completed by Cyprus. In 1878 Lord Beaconsfield wrote to Queen Victoria, "Cyprus is the key of Western Asia"; and with that far-sightedness which had already obtained for his country a predominant financial interest in the new canal joining the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, the great statesman arranged at the Congress of Berlin that the island should be transferred from Turkey to Britain for administration purposes.

Beaconsfield's claim that he had brought Britain "peace with honour" seemed fully justified at the time, for the strategical importance of Cyprus, increased by the opening of the new route to the East, was obvious to all. As far as Britain was concerned, however, the island lost much of its importance when her intervention in Egypt supplied her with the bases she needed in the Eastern Mediterranean. Owing to the British Government's preoccupation with Egyptian affairs, Cyprus became a somewhat neglected child. On Turkey joining the Central Powers in the war against us in November, 1914, it was, however, annexed to the Empire, and the purely nominal overlordship of the Sultan was terminated.

In 1925 Cyprus achieved the status of a colony, and, following Britain's usual liberal procedure, representative institutions were introduced. As in Malta, the experiment proved to be premature. The Cypriots, who number about 350,000, are a mixed lot, composed of Greeks, Turks, and people of other Eastern races. About one-fifth of them are Moslems, while the majority are members of the Church of Cyprus, a self-governing

branch of the Greek Orthodox Church. The Greek-speaking Cypriots have worked up an agitation for the transfer of the island to Greece on the ground that she is in truth their mother-country. Greece herself has shown no particular eagerness to unite them to her, and Britain is quite unable to agree that their claim is well founded. Unfortunately, extremists have pressed the matter so far as to create disturbances, and in 1931 the position became so serious that there was no alternative but to revoke the constitution, and concentrate legislative power in the hands of the Governor until^a a more liberal form of government could be restored.

With the grant of complete independence to Egypt, Britain can only use Egyptian ports on sufferance. She is dependent entirely upon the goodwill of King Farouk's Government. An eastern base in the Mediterranean, which is entirely in her own control, is essential. Cyprus fulfils the qualifications in nearly every way, and its importance to the Empire could, therefore, be enormously increased. Other factors have contributed to enhancing the strategic value of the island. The hostility to Britain generated by the Fascist régime in Italy has made a haven for our warships more remote from enemy aerodromes than Malta a necessity. And the difficult problem of government with which we have been saddled in Palestine, and the consequent unrest among the population, demand a base convenient and adjacent to the Holy Land, if authority and order are to be preserved.

The future may see extensive developments in Cyprus and the creation of a naval and military base which will take full advantage of the island's geographical advantages. Forty miles from Asia Minor, 240 from Egypt, it has through history been the meeting-place of

East and West. Already it has to some extent supplanted Egypt, where Britain's leading strings may soon be dispensed with altogether, as a vital link in the great air line to the East.

It is interesting to recall that Cyprus belonged to England as long ago as the 12th century. In 1191 Richard Coeur-de-Lion conquered it, but subsequently sold it to the Knights Templars, the forerunners of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.

To the ancients Cyprus was a land of romance, a home of sunshine and flowers. It is possible to trace its history back seventeen centuries before Christ. It was then apparently more beautiful than it is now, more wooded and well watered. To-day much of the island is bare and bleak. The mountains are imposing. There are two main ranges, north and south, with a great broad plain between them. In the southern chain is Mount Troödos, 6,400 feet high, the peak that the ancients used to call Mount Olympus, the throne of the pagan gods, though more than one mountain in the Grecian world enjoyed this honour. Olympus is the name used to-day to designate the whole of the southern range in Cyprus.

The summer heat on the plains of Cyprus is very great, and units of the British Army stationed in the island were extremely uncomfortable until higher quarters were found for them in the hills. Now conditions of service are pleasant enough. But long periods of rainless days have always been the curse of Cypriot agriculturists, though the scientists under the British occupation have greatly minimised the inconvenience and loss. Vineyards cover a large area of the country, and a flourishing wine industry is centred in the town of Limasol. Oranges, almonds, potatoes, and many other

crops are successfully cultivated; wool is sent abroad, and mining is conducted on an increasing scale, the large deposits of copper chiefly engaging attention and forming the islands' principal article of export.

On the plain between the mountain ranges stands the island's capital, Nicosia. The modern town, embodying both Turkish and Greek features, has a population of about 24,000. As a place of man's habitation it is ages old. Near by is a large necropolis dating back to the Bronze Age; and the story of archaeological research in the island is one of the most interesting and fruitful chapters in the development of the science. Nicosia has known many masters and many names. Leucos, the son of Ptolemy Soter of Egypt, changed it from Ledra to Lenteon about 280 B.C. Since that time there have been Roman, Arab, Greek, Venetian and Turkish rulers, until now it is a link in the imperial chain of Britain.

Although Cyprus is a small island—it is only a hundred and forty miles long and from thirty to sixty broad—its potential importance to Britain is enormous. In the hands of an enemy it could make it impossible for her to maintain herself in the Eastern Mediterranean, and could sever her life-line to the Indian Empire and her Asiatic possessions.

PALESTINE

Britain did not enter war with Germany in 1914 with any idea of adding more territory to her Empire. She had no ambitions whatsoever in that direction. When peace came, however, she found herself invited by the League of Nations to accept mandates for certain of

her ex-enemies' colonies and dependencies. The original feature of the mandate system was that permanent possession was not envisaged, only temporary occupation, which was to last until such time as the inhabitants of the mandated territory could safely be left to manage their own affairs.

It is an open question whether Britain, with her already tremendous responsibilities, was well advised to shoulder the trusteeship for peoples who, until 1914-1918, had been living under the German and Turkish flags. Some argue that the mandated territories have not proved a source of strength to Britain, but rather the reverse. These new lands, they say, while not strictly a part of her Empire, have made her commitments unmanageable; and the price she has had to pay for the privilege of trusteeship has not by a long way been balanced by compensating advantages.

The contention seems to have been proved true in the case of those parts of the old Turkish Empire which fell to Britain under the mandatory system. Mesopotamia, later called Iraq, was granted its independence at the earliest possible moment, and the British Government was not sorry to surrender its control and recommend the Arab kingdom for full membership of the League of Nations. Egypt, which Britain had virtually ruled for thirty years, was declared a British Protectorate in 1914. Yet in 1922 she became a sovereign state, free and independent, and Britain resigned her economic and military tutelage, with certain reservations.

In Palestine, the mandated territory bordering the eastern shore of the Mediterranean, so satisfactory a solution is not possible. Here Britain finds herself in an extremely difficult position, having made in the turmoil

of war promises to two sections of the population which are now found completely irreconcilable. It is not a problem from which our nation can run away by a weak surrender of the mandate, but it is one for which the only solution at present in view is clumsy and unattractive.

Under Turkish rule Palestine was permitted to fall into a state of poverty and dilapidation. The soil, naturally fertile, had been allowed to deteriorate through failure to take any steps to restore it. Turkey was, indeed, impoverished herself. She had fought one war with Italy over Tripoli, and another with the Balkan Allies over her territory in Europe, and had lost them both. She was not, therefore, in a position to arrest the decline in the Holy Land; and the cumulative dissatisfaction of the Arab inhabitants was fully justified.

This dissatisfaction was exploited in the war by Britain, who made glowing promises to the Arabs in return for their help in liberating their land from Turkish rule. With them as allies, the British under Allenby were able by 1918 to overrun the whole country up to Damascus. Jerusalem and the Holy Places came beneath the protecting banner of Britain, and the Arabs looked forward to a national life unrestricted by a hostile master. Progress and development were confidently expected, and the promises seemed certain to be fulfilled.

There happened, however, to be another influential body of people, whom Britain desired to enlist in her cause. These were the Jews, whose world-wide activities in finance and commerce made them valuable friends indeed. The best way to win their favour, it was considered, was to lend official support to their racial ambition to recover their lost country of Palestine.

This resulted in what is known as the Balfour Declaration of November 2nd, 1917, when Britain committed herself in the following terms :

“ His Majesty’s Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of that object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of the existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.”

Mr. Balfour, who was responsible for the above declaration, which was contained in a letter written to Lord Rothschild, did not realise that Britain’s championship of the Zionist or back-to-Palestine movement was incompatible with the promises already made to the Arab subjects of Turkey. France approved our Jewish policy; so later did the League of Nations, whose mandate expressly provided for the establishment of the Jewish home.

When the civil rule of Sir Herbert Samuel, the first High Commissioner for Palestine, replaced that of the military, the tide of Jewish immigration began to flow, and to flow fast. The Arab population was naturally alarmed, and the first disorders occurred. As the number of Jews entering the country declined, the disturbances died down, but on every considerable rise they broke out afresh. With the coming of Hitler and the Nazi persecution of the Jews in Germany, the numbers seeking a new home in the Holy Land climbed steeply, and the frightened Arabs countered with a

general strike, bomb outrages, and armed rioting, which necessitated in 1936 and 1938 the strengthening of the British garrison. The only way to calm the Arabs is to stop the inflow of Jews from Germany, Poland, Rumania, and Soviet Russia; but to shut out the Jews is to raise the loud wail that Britain has gone back upon her word.

The total population of Palestine is over 1,400,000. Of these 883,000 are Moslems and 402,000 are Jews. The remainder are mostly Christians. It will be seen then from these figures that the Moslem Arabs have still an overwhelming majority. But their thoughts are on the future. No less than 294,000 Jews have poured into the land of their fathers since 1920; and the Arabs, believing that such a sea must eventually engulf them, have resorted to violence and assassination in their unyielding resistance.

Britain is genuinely anxious to find a way out of the impasse. While she cannot tolerate rebellion nor countenance a withdrawal from Palestine in the circumstances, she does really want to do the best possible for both sides. The British Government appointed a Royal Commission to make a thorough study of the problem, and both Jews and Arabs were impressed by its earnestness and impartiality. But its recommendations entailed a partition of this small land into three: (1) a sovereign Arab state, embracing, roughly, Samaria and Judea; (2) a sovereign Jewish state comprising Galilee and the sea-coasts from north of Acre to south of Jaffa; and (3) a British mandated territory to include the Holy Places, Jerusalem and Bethlehem, with a corridor to the sea at Jaffa. This scheme pleased nobody and was dropped. It was followed by what was intended to be a Round Table Conference similar

to that which thrashed out the constitutional questions for India. But it was found impossible to persuade Jew and Arab to sit down together and try to reach an agreed solution. The British Government had no option, therefore, but to impose its own will on the country and maintain law and order.

It is a melancholy fact that political enmity has obscured the good that Palestine has derived from British rule in many other directions. Soil erosion has been corrected; agriculture has received aid and encouragement, and a lucrative export trade, chiefly in oranges, olive oil and grape-fruit, has been built up; new railways have been laid down; dredging and harbour construction work have converted Haifa into a deep-water port, the only anchorage for large vessels on this coast; and schools, Moslem, Jewish and Christian, as well as secondary and technical colleges, have been established and supported. But until there is peace between the warring factions, all this splendid civilising work will lose much of its value.

The tremendous historical and religious associations of Palestine do not come within our present scope, which only concerns the Holy Land as part of the British Empire. But there is not a Briton who does not feel the keenest regret that with his flag flying over these hallowed acres, there are strife and unrest instead of the quiet order, progress and contentment which that same flag has brought to so many corners of the Earth.

TRANSJORDAN

A unique system of administration exists in the territory east of the Jordan. Although included in the

Palestine mandate, Transjordan enjoys a measure of independence under His Highness the Emir Abdullah Ibn Hussein, G.C.M.G., G.B.E., and his Arab advisers.

The Emir, who is the second son of the late King Hussein of Hejaz, and brother of Feisal, the first King of Iraq, appeared in Transjordan in 1921 at the head of a small force, with hostile intentions towards the Allied Powers. Britain, through Mr. Winston Churchill, in one of those moments of inspiration which reveal her genius for ruling an empire, instead of dispatching a column of troops against the Emir, offered him the throne, a capital at Ammam, and financial aid from the British Treasury. There were certain conditions. Abdullah's government was to be constitutional. Britain was not to be handicapped in carrying out the international obligations of the Palestine mandate; and the approval of the League of Nations was to be obtained. On the other hand, the provisions as to a national home for the Jews was not to apply to the Emir's kingdom.

Adjustments have been found necessary from time to time, but the fitting into the mandate of a measure of Arab independence has been found workable; and the goodwill of the Emir has been of great assistance to Britain in grappling with the difficulties that face her on the other side of the Jordan.

Exact figures are not available, but Transjordan is believed to have a population of about 300,000, half of them settled and half of them more or less nomads. The area is about 35,000 square miles and corresponds roughly to the old Seljuk (Turkish) kingdom of Kerak, a name that is sometimes used for the territory. Much of the country is desert, but in the extreme west are tracts of fertile soil which permit of agricultural and pastoral pursuits.

The capital, Ammam, is an interesting town. Originally it was, as the name indicates, the chief city of the Amorites. In Roman times it achieved considerable importance, and one of its attractive features to-day is the great Roman Theatre with room for 4,000 people. Ammam is served by the Hejaz railway, which runs through Transjordan from north to south and makes this interesting Arab kingdom accessible to travellers and well-wishers.

CHAPTER II

THE ATLANTIC

WITH the discovery of the New World in the fifteenth century, the advocates of expansion and progress lifted their eyes from the Mediterranean, on which they had been fixed for many generations, and gazed out with new freedom across the Atlantic. When it was discovered that the Rock of Gibraltar did not mark the limits of the habitable world, and that the great oceans were no longer barriers but highways, the new heart of civilisation beat not in Italy, but among the nations on the western seaboard.

Spain, Portugal, Holland, England and France realised that the future lay with those who obtained a firm footing in the New World. They made varying use of their opportunities. Spain expanded to enormous proportions, only for the bubble to burst, and eventually leave nothing behind. Portugal and Holland were countries with populations too small to hold their immense initial gains, yet managed to cling to certain rich and valuable dependencies. France, while losing some of the glittering prizes to her virile competitor, Britain, has even now a large empire, though the American portion consists to-day only of French Guiana and the French West Indies. Britain herself has still large territories in the West, but she had to lose an empire before she learned how to hold and govern her possessions.

The United States of America, as one-time British colonies, are a monument to Britain's pioneering efforts across the Atlantic, a testimony to her foresight in recognising where the future of the world would lie. If that foresight had been carried into the business of government, the loss of her first empire might have been averted. But the lesson was assimilated in time for her to grant complete control of her own affairs to Canada, and so retain the great dominion as a partner in the Commonwealth of Nations.

It was across the Atlantic that Britain's first colonies were planted; and while the most flourishing of these severed the tie with the mother country, and others were federated into the first self-governing dominion, there are some that are still ruled directly by the Crown. They are among the oldest possessions of Britain. Newfoundland, after a chequered career and considerable experience of responsible government, is temporarily receiving direct guidance from Britain as a result of economic difficulties and internal complications. The Bermudas out in the Atlantic, 580 miles from the Carolina coast, have remained British since their first settlement in 1609.

In the West Indies Britain holds a formidable array of islands, some of which have changed hands several times as the squabbles between British, Spanish and French adventurers and explorers waxed fast and furious; others have never slipped from the British grasp since the first bold settlers stepped ashore and raised the flag. This empire in miniature consists of the Bahama Islands in the north; Jamaica in the centre; the Leeward Islands, Barbados and the Windward Islands to the east, and Trinidad with Tobago to the south. On the American Isthmus we hold

British Honduras, and on the South American mainland, British Guiana. The Atlantic possessions are completed by the Falkland Islands lying far to the south, 300 miles east of the Magellan Straits.

NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

Newfoundland is usually described as Britain's oldest colony, and Newfoundlanders make their claim to this distinction with some pride. The claim is justified so far as discovery is concerned, for an English expedition reached the island's shores in 1497. But in the matter of permanent settlement Newfoundland has to take second place to some of the West Indian Islands.

The leaders of this first English voyage into the West, the initial step along the road to world empire, were John Cabot and his son, Sebastian. Unfortunately we cannot claim John as an Englishman, for he hailed from Venice, but he was domiciled here, and here Sebastian was born. Moreover, the expedition was sponsored by the merchants of Bristol, and the monarch who granted the letters patent was Henry VII.

Cabot sighted the cape now called Bonavista on Newfoundland's eastern coast on June 24th, 1497, and claimed the country for the English king. His voyage included a landing on Cape Breton Island, now part of Nova Scotia, from which the explorers passed to the American mainland, actually a year before Columbus set foot in America proper as distinct from the West Indies.

After this initial flutter, England let her interest in the New World drop while she busied herself with the Reformation and other matters which at home seemed of far greater importance. So three years after Cabot,

that is in 1500, the Portuguese navigator, Gaspar de Cortereal, came and found no trace of England's ownership. Others followed Cortereal, Portuguese, Basques and Frenchmen; and it was not very long before Newfoundland's rich secret was revealed to the world. Here were the finest fishing-grounds that had ever been known. By Elizabethan times, it is estimated, there were 400 vessels engaged in this trade, so quickly did their fame and prosperity grow. It is pleasant to know that, in spite of the long start England had allowed her imperial rivals, a quarter of the ships in this international fishing fleet were English.

Fishing always has been, and still is, the staple industry of Newfoundland. It has determined the island's history, prompted the fierce rivalry between the fishermen of the European powers, and, strangely enough, retarded settlement and development of inland resources, as will later be explained.

The fisheries are valuable all round the Newfoundland shores and up the long coast of Labrador, but it is on the famous Banks that the cod is principally found. From the commercial point of view the cod is the most important of all fish, and here, off Newfoundland, it is found in greater numbers than on any other fishing-ground in the whole world. It is the island's great asset; and one is hardly surprised to learn that over four-fifths of the population are directly or indirectly engaged in fishing. For it is not only the cod, valuable as it is, that gives them employment, but also the whaling and sealing, which occupies most of their attention during the months of winter and early spring.

The Banks, Newfoundland's wonderful source of wealth, are situated some 200 miles south-east of Cape Race and extend for about 300 miles into the Atlantic.

They were formed by the northern current from Labrador meeting the Gulf Stream striking upwards from the south. The various deposits are heaped together, resulting in a large area of shallow water. The continuous action of the two currents sweep quantities of particles of edible stuff on to the Banks, on which millions of molluscs and invertebrates feed. These molluscs and invertebrates in turn are food for the cod, which visit the grounds in countless shoals. The fish is very prolific, a female being responsible for anything up to eight million eggs a year, though these do not by any means all develop into fishes, which is, perhaps, a good thing, for there would be no room for them in the sea! As it is, on the Newfoundland Banks it is not uncommon for a single fisherman to catch over 500 cod in the space of ten hours. Little wonder that in these waters the fishing fleets of many nations meet, the vessels nowadays belonging chiefly to Britain, Canada, America and France.

So famous had the fisheries become even in Elizabeth's day that Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, resolved to follow up the Cabot discovery by planting a settlement in Newfoundland. Queen Elizabeth gave the enterprise her blessing, and Gilbert sailed from Plymouth on June 11th, 1583, with five ships equipped for his "Western Planting." He arrived in Newfoundland in August, and formally occupied it in the name of the Queen. The spot he chose for his experiment was the fine, sheltered harbour, entered by a gap through the coastal cliffs, where the capital of St. John's now stands. There Gilbert founded the first English settlement in America. But it was fated not to endure. The obstacles were too great, and an overwhelming disaster beset the enterprise when

Gilbert himself was lost at sea off the Azores on his return voyage to England.

However, attempts to obtain a permanent footing on the islands were not abandoned, and after many failures and disappointments, persevering English colonists did strike their roots in the soil during the 17th century. But they were not alone. France had been quicker than most to realise the importance of the fisheries, and her pioneers had firmly established themselves on the shoreline. Between the two groups there was constant friction; disputes as to rights were unending. These became especially acute in the summer months, when the island's resident population was many times increased. For vessels came from Europe in the spring, fished all summer, dried and salted their catch on the coastlands, and sailed away again as the hard, northern winter signalled its approach. Many of these summer visitors were English and hailed from Devonshire. But whether they were English or not, they had no goodwill towards the permanent dwellers on the island, arguing that the whole place should be reserved exclusively for the activities of the fishing fleets.

France and Britain were constantly bickering as to who really owned the island. The Frenchmen rejected the English claim based on the discovery by Cabot and the annexation of Gilbert; and it was not until Marlborough had brought victory to Britain and her Allies in the war of the Spanish Succession that the question of sovereignty was finally settled. Then, by the Treaty of Utrecht, which ended the fighting in 1713, France acknowledged Newfoundland as part of the British Empire.

Although she had renounced her territorial rights, France remained actively engaged in the fishing industry.

She was allowed to send her fleets to Newfoundland as before; and, in fact, certain parts of the north and west were allotted to her where she could catch and dry fish as much as she pleased. Her colonists were not supposed to settle in the country, but they came, nevertheless; and in time it was found that France interpreted the concession made to her as an exclusive right to certain areas and a prohibition on British fishermen entering them. This was not at all what the British Government had intended, and consequently the great dispute was renewed and sustained, and not actually settled until the year of the famous *Entente Cordiale*, 1904.

Britain herself regarded Newfoundland more as a fishing-ground than as a land for overseas settlement. It was fifteen years after the Treaty of Utrecht before she appointed a governor. Even then, the fisher-merchants took exception to the appointment and were able to impose the most restrictive conditions on the colonists. Everything was sacrificed to the fishing industry. Settlers were not permitted to build their houses within a certain distance of the shore, and special permission from the government had to be obtained before any building at all could be erected in case the fishermen were incommoded. These conditions persisted up to 1811 and halted progress inland.

In 1763, after Wolfe had conquered Quebec, the coast of Labrador was attached to Newfoundland. It is still a dependency of the colony. Some 120,000 square miles in extent, it runs from Belle Isle to the shores of Hudson Strait. In these 850 miles of sea coast there are less than five thousand people. There are no towns, only posts which have now been taken over by the Hudson's Bay Company. Many of the

inhabitants are Eskimos, particularly in the far north; and all the settlers of Labrador are engaged in fishing and hunting. It is a desolate region, though the scenery is magnificent, if awe-inspiring. The Grand Falls on the Hamilton River are a scenic wonder worth the long and difficult journey necessary to reach them. Labrador is not the place for the soft and puny. The winters are long and hard, and for months the whole region is in the iron grip of the ice. But those who can stand the vigour of the climate are strong and hardy. In 1920 there was a dispute between Quebec and Newfoundland over the demarcation of the boundary between Labrador and the Canadian Province, and the Privy Council decided largely in favour of Newfoundland.

Geographically, it would seem logical that Newfoundland should be included in the Dominion of Canada. It separates the Gulf of St. Lawrence from the Atlantic, and commands the entrance to the river; its nearest point, at Belle Isle, is only eleven miles from the mainland. The total population of the colony is under 300,000, which is small for an entirely independent dominion. But Newfoundlanders have preferred to go their own way, especially in times of prosperity, and won representative institutions as far back as 1832, and responsible government in 1855, twelve years before the Canadian federation came into being. When there was depression in the island and debts were mounting, the federation idea commanded more support. But at those times union did not commend itself to Canada, who was adverse to shouldering extra responsibilities with no compensating return. In the War many thousands of Newfoundlanders joined the forces, the majority preferring to serve in the imperial army, while others enrolled themselves in the armies of Canada.

Newfoundland has experienced varied fortune. There have been times of wonderful prosperity, notably in the Napoleonic era. There have been periods again of severe depression. A few years ago the island's difficulties became so acute and the internal muddle so serious that Britain had to step in, suspend responsible government temporarily, provide the necessary financial aid, and hand the administration over to a commission to function until such time as the colony was on its feet and self-supporting once more. This, it was hoped, would not be long delayed.

The general impression of Newfoundland held by most British people is of a grim, foggy land, cold, bleak, and in some respects rather frightening. It cannot be denied that the scenery is decidedly austere. The coast is extremely rugged, and the mountains behind rise so steeply that an elevation of 2,000 feet is attained only a few miles inland. But if this is stark and awesome, it is at the same time magnificent. Contrary to what we should expect, the interior is more undulating. There are fertile valleys, suitable for the farmer and stock-breeder, and vast tracks of forest. The history of Newfoundland has been written on the coasts, and the fisheries have always received first consideration. The opportunities inland have not been really exploited, in spite of the fact that there is now a railway traversing the whole island and making some of the most promising regions accessible.

Newfoundland to-day has a new industry, a great and important one, to supplement her fisheries. This is the manufacture of wood pulp for paper-making. The cry of the publishers of books and newspapers all over the world is for more and more paper, and Newfoundland with her thousands of acres of suitable trees

is helping to supply the need. Several mills have been erected, and newsprint is shipped to England, where it is eagerly devoured. A number of the leading newspapers in the Empire are now printed on paper from Britain's oldest colony. The wood most used for the purpose is spruce. This tree grows rapidly in the conditions prevailing, and a careful scheme of afforestation is in being to replace timber felled by new saplings.

The fogs and sea mists of Newfoundland are a troublesome feature of the climate. Airman, passing over the island, when following the shortest Atlantic route—it is only 1,640 miles to Ireland—have been worried by them. The fishing fleets on the Banks have battled for centuries with the ghostly wraith that envelopes them. It is a weird sight to see the dripping vessels with their shiny crews emerging for a minute or two from the moist cloud, only to be swallowed up again as quickly. But the mists are caused by the very same circumstances which have formed the Banks and attracted the cod to this neighbourhood. The cold and warm currents meeting and combining are responsible for all these phenomena.

Intending visitors to Newfoundland should not be deterred by the common misconception held about the island country. They will find the capital, St. John's, a pleasant town of some 40,000 inhabitants; over 50,000, if one counts the suburbs. Considering that it has been visited three times by terrible fires—in 1816, 1846 and 1892—it is a city to be proud of. Each time it rose from the ashes beautified and improved; and this was no mean feat in 1846, when the conflagration laid waste no less than three-fourths of the buildings.

The fjords of Newfoundland are truly marvellous.

With their deep, shining waters, their steep, high cliffs, and their penetration inland of 80 or 90 miles, they have earned for the colony the title of "The Norway of the New World." Well do they compare with the best the Scandinavian country has to offer. Then, during the months of July, August and September, when the Newfoundland climate is at its most genial, the inland scene is very beautiful. Mountains in their green robes of fir, spruce, pine, and maple; open lands covered with mosses and coloured berries; river banks decked with wild strawberries and other fruits; carpets of ferns and flowers—all these have caused one writer to compare the centre of the island to the Highlands of Scotland.

In winter, of course, Newfoundland is cold. But there is less snow than in Canada, and the terrible cold of the Prairies is not experienced. The north of Labrador is frozen hard and still, but at St. John's temperatures below zero are not common. In the spring the ice released from the Greenland shores floats down in huge bergs, which are sometimes caught on the banks and now and then block the harbour entrances. These disperse themselves off the American coast, but there are certain times of the year when the sea-captain's responsibility is heavy indeed, as he picks his way through the Newfoundland seas, shrouded in fog and menaced by icebergs.

It is little wonder that the Newfoundlers are a strong and hardy race; and it says much for the virility of the British that they have been able to hold the colony against foes and climate and keep a grip on the finest fishing-grounds the world contains.

BERMUDAS

The Bermudas are a group of islands lying in the Atlantic 580 miles from the coast of North Carolina and about 680 miles from New York. If one includes the small bare rocks, there are between three and four hundred of them, but only twenty are inhabited. The principal member of the group is Great Bermuda, sometimes called Main Island, which is fourteen miles long and about a mile wide. As the area of the whole colony is under twenty miles, it is obvious that it must be on Main Island that the life of the little community is mostly concentrated. It is possible that at one time the land surface was more extensive than it is to-day, for one theory holds that the islands are the summit of a deep sea volcano.

Bermuda was a terror to navigators in the old days. Those who approached it were generally wrecked in one of the violent storms which so often lash the coasts. The discoverer, Juan de Bermudez, a Spaniard who gave the islands his name, was driven on the rocks in the early years of the 16th century, when on a voyage with a cargo of hogs from Spain to Cuba. In 1593 an Englishman named Henry May also came to grief at Bermuda; and in 1609 Admiral Sir George Somers' ship, the *Sea Adventure*, was blown ashore, the crew having a miraculous escape from death. Somers was in charge of a fleet of nine sail, which was conveying five hundred colonists to the new settlement of James Town in Virginia. A gale had dispersed them, and the flag-ship was driven to its doom.

For nearly ten months Somers and his men were marooned on Bermuda. But the sojourn was not wholly unpleasant. The mild and genial climate of the colony,

which has made it so popular a health resort for American and Canadian visitors at the present time, was appreciated by the shipwrecked mariners; and full accounts of their experiences with attractive descriptions of their temporary home were compiled and published when, eventually, they had been rescued.

It is interesting that, as many scholars aver, Shakespeare made use of the adventure in writing "The Tempest." He speaks in the play of "the still-vexed Bermoothes," a description that would be quickly recognised by the mariners of the day who held the islands in such ill repute. The general description of Prospero's island, which the dramatist puts into the mouth of Ariel, go to confirm the venue. He mentions the pleasant climatic conditions, the blazes of fire and lightning, the mysterious noises suggestive of spirits and devils, and the springs of water and supplies of wood and timber — all of which might apply to Bermuda.

Somers had found the islands unoccupied, but his enforced stay convinced him that use could be made of them. Little time was wasted in forming a company for the "Plantation of the Somers Islands," as they were called after the wreck of the *Sea Adventure*, and still are in some quarters. The admiral himself died before operations could be started, but in 1612 sixty colonists under the leadership of Henry More left Virginia to take effective possession of the Bermudas for Britain. They maintained themselves by growing tobacco, and the crop supplied the colony with its first source of wealth.

Since those days the Bermudas have thrived under the British flag. Holiday-makers and invalids from the United States and Canada have brought increasing

fame and popularity to the islands as a resort. Thousands come every year and add considerably to the colony's prosperity. This is increased by a well-established fruit and vegetable industry. The islands are very fertile. Growth is luxuriant. Tobacco, cotton, coffee, and indigo are easily raised. Medicinal plants, such as castor-oil and aloe, require no attention. Among the trees the Bermuda cedar, really a juniper, is abundant, and in the days of the wooden walls was much prized for shipbuilding. The mangrove and prickly pear are found everywhere. Fish and birds are plentiful; and it is easy to understand why Somers and his men were far from uncomfortable as Bermuda's first inhabitants.

A profitable business has been built up of recent years in flowers and bulbs. Cut flowers are largely exported, Canada being the principal market. Indeed, the whole trade connection between the Dominion and the Colony is an important and extending one. A speciality of the growers is the Bermuda Easter Lily, the bulbs of which are bought in considerable numbers by the Americans.

The population of the Bermudas is about 30,000, the majority being coloured. The capital is Hamilton, centrally situated on Main Island. Its residents number just over 4,000, and this figure is enormously increased by the military, holiday-makers, and those seeking new health in the invigorating air of Bermuda. At one time St. George's, on the island of that name, was the colonial capital. It is a picturesque old town, founded in 1794, and stands on the sheltered harbour of St. George. It proved, however, more convenient to have the seat of government on the island on which most of the people lived, and this is even more important now that the

colony enjoys representative government and has an elected House of Assembly of thirty-six members.

The Bermudas in the hectic days of imperial rivalry had great strategic importance, and were made into a naval base. The dockyard and naval establishment are on Ireland Island. The harbour of St. George is spacious enough to shelter a considerable fleet, but its narrow and shallow entrance had to be deepened and widened by blasting before the larger vessels could enter. The colony is to-day more important as a coaling station than as a strategical strong-point, for the battle between the European powers in the West has ended, and the relations between Britain and America are such that old differences have been forgotten and a possible war between the two is now ruled out by both sides as inconceivable.

THE WEST INDIES

The West Indian Islands, extending in a great curve from Florida to Venezuela, still perpetuate by their name the mistake made by Columbus when he thought he had lighted upon a part of India. They show that the world is actually twice as big as the great navigator thought it was. His discovery was followed by the seizure of the islands by Spain and the practical extinction of the aboriginal inhabitants under the cruel treatment meted out to them by their new masters. Perhaps as a punishment, Spain no longer has a footing in the West Indies, which are shared between Britain, France, the Netherlands, America, and independent island republics. The present position is the outcome of centuries of war, competition and piracy, and may now be regarded as stabilised.

The British West Indies, divided into six crown

colonies which are considered severally in the following pages, have enjoyed varied fortune. Not only have some of the islands been lost and retaken in wars with imperial rivals, but conditions have been subject to wild fluctuations in the commercial and economic spheres. Prosperity, and great prosperity, was brought to the West Indies as a whole with the introduction of the sugar cane. It was first planted on a wide scale about the year 1640, and for centuries it has been the island's great staple industry. It still is the chief source of income, but the heyday passed with the introduction of bounty-fed, beet-made sugar.

It was during the Napoleonic era that commercial use began to be made of the discovery of the German scientist, Andreas S. Marggraf, that sugar existed in beetroot and other roots grown in temperate regions. The first decades were a time of struggle for the new venture, but after 1840 it went ahead rapidly. By means of state aid in the shape of a bounty on exports, certain countries of Europe were able to flood the crowded consuming centres with sugar at so low a price that it was utterly impossible for the colonial planters of cane-sugar to compete. In a few years the prosperity of the British West Indies, which had survived successfully the abolition of slavery, vanished to nothing. Britain fought hard for her colonial planters through conference and convention, but towards the end of the last century it seemed that the extinction of the West Indian sugar industry was inevitable.

The Great War rescued the West Indies. The increased demand for commodities included sugar, since certain of the supplies of beet-sugar were cut off. Advantage was taken of this new lease of life. The introduction of scientific methods of refining lowered

the production costs so far as cane-sugar was concerned, and enabled it to compete favourably in certain markets notably that of the United States, with the cheap beet variety. But West Indian prosperity was not in future to rest solely on sugar. It was assisted by cocoa, fruit, and cotton, and by the growing attraction of the islands as tourist centres and the destination of cruising liners. Moreover, special developments, such as that of the oil wells in Trinidad, have benefited the whole of the colonies.

But the revival inspired by the Great War has not proved sound enough to ride out the economic depression of the post-War years. Commodity prices fell the world over, and the decline in those of sugar and cocoa hit the West Indies hard and depressed the standard of living among the people. So serious were conditions in some of the islands that outbreaks occurred. These misfortunes spurred the British Government to a special re-examination of the case of the West Indies, and a powerful Commission was appointed for the purpose. Its labours were arduous, and the questions before it most difficult of solution. Ways must be sought of raising the selling price of the staple products, making it possible to pay higher wages to the labourers on the plantations. A scheme for settling West Indians on the fertile acres available must be devised to employ the idle. New industries must be established to absorb the increasing population, now that the United States has closed the door to the stream of emigrants which formerly relieved the congestion. The problems are gigantic enough, but those who know the West Indies best believe that opportunities exist for solving them, if adequate use is made of the enormous resources of the colonies.

There has been much consideration given to the desirability or otherwise of a federation plan for the West Indies. Only in 1932 a Royal Commission considered the possibility of closer relationship between the Windward Islands, Trinidad, and the Leeward Islands. The total population of a new West Indian dominion would probably be in the neighbourhood of two millions. A West Indian Regiment, recruited from the various islands, served with distinction on the battle-fields of Europe and Asia, and this turned people's thoughts to the question of common effort in other directions. But there seem to be strong arguments against federation. The colonies are insular and self-contained in their outlook; the distances between them are great; the common interests are few compared to their particular requirements needing special treatment, and the systems of government now existing among them do not by a long way conform to one pattern. A West Indian union is not at the moment, apparently, practical politics.

Compared with the turbulence, fighting and buccaneering of bygone centuries, the British West Indies are now enjoying an era of peace. They are not threatened by an armed and hostile power. Indeed, the only fortified places in the whole system are Jamaica, Barbados and St. Lucia, which are useful to the Navy and the Merchant Service as coaling stations. Other islands rely on their local police force or their volunteer corps to keep order. Labour disturbances have occurred, as they do everywhere in times of hardship and depression, but there is no serious danger to the safety and security of the colonies, their potential prosperity, progress, or place in the Empire.

THE BAHAMAS

Starting at the northern end of the great arc of islands dividing the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea from the Atlantic, we come first upon the Bahama Islands, which stretch from a point forty miles from the Florida coast to Haiti. They form one of the main divisions of the West Indies and are wholly within the British Empire.

An enormous number of islets and rocks are included in the group, but only about twenty of the islands are inhabited. The Bahamas are a coral formation, with very hard rock on the surface and a softer species underneath, which is used for building purposes. In point of size Great Bahama and Little and Great Abaco in the north, Andros Island to the west, and Great Inagua in the south, are the largest. Eleuthera, Cat Island, Long Island, Crooked Island and Great Exuma are other important members. From an historical point of view San Salvador, or Watling Island, ranks high, for this was Christopher Columbus' first sight of the New World. A somewhat romantic reputation attaches to South Bimini, since it was here, after much searching, that the Spaniards located the Fountain of Youth. The spring is still credited locally with wonderful healing powers.

The life-centre of the Bahamas, sometimes called the Isles of June, is the small island of New Providence, which contains the capital, Nassau. It is only 85 square miles in area, as compared with the 4,400 square miles which make up the colony, but contains nearly a third of the population. It was chosen as the political hub of the group for its safe harbour on the north shore, which is sheltered by the small Hog Island to seaward.

Nassau is an attractive town, built along the shores of the harbour, extending for some distance inland and climbing a slightly elevated ridge behind. Recent dredging operations have greatly improved the port, which enjoys a busy tourist traffic with Canada and the United States, whence many visitors escape to the Bahamas for a winter holiday. An increasing number of people from Britain herself are also taking advantage of a situation and climate which have few rivals in the Empire.

Reminders of the turbulent history of the islands—for New Providence was always the centre of any trouble that was going—are the old forts, with their maze of passages and dungeons, put to grim use in the 18th century. The surroundings of Nassau are most picturesque; the combination of wonderful colours produced by the varying blues and greens of the sea and the rich vegetation is a delight to those who visit the islands in large numbers during the popular months of February and March. Hog Island possesses what is claimed to be the finest beach in the world, despite what the people of Sydney may say; and a further great attraction is the altogether charming sea-gardens where marvels of tropical submarine growths are visible through the clear water. The old slave market, the Negro settlement, the Queen's Staircase cut out of the living rock, are other sights the visitor to the Bahamas must not miss.

The climate of Nassau and of the Bahamas generally is pleasant. Lying outside the tropics, the islands avoid the worst of the heat, while the cold of the winter season is moderated by the Gulf Stream. Not only Americans and Canadians, but visitors cruising on liners from the Homeland are frequenting Nassau in increasing numbers during the winter. The great bane of the West Indian

Islands is the hurricane. Much destruction has been caused in the past by the elements in some of their most angry moods. But the Bahamas have been more fortunate than most, although they lie within the hurricane belt. The latest serious visitation was in the middle of last century.

After Columbus had struck Watling Island in his famous first voyage to the New World in 1492, the Spaniards claimed the Bahama Islands by right of discovery. The first chapter in their history did not reflect much credit on Spain. The new masters used the awe with which the Carib inhabitants viewed the white invaders from over the seas to impose upon them most shamefully. These easy-going, lazy aborigines had enormous reverence for their ancestors; and the Spaniards, by pretending that they were about to reunite them with those who had passed beyond the grave, easily persuaded them to leave their homes. But instead of landing them on the shores of Paradise, as the poor deluded people had expected, they set them to work as slaves in the mines of Cuba and Haiti, where most of them died of a broken heart or killed themselves in despair. It is estimated that some 40,000 Caribs perished miserably in this manner, and the Bahamas were left depopulated.

The empty islands were, apparently, first planted with white settlers when Sir Robert Heath raised the British flag in 1629. In 1646 Eleuthera was colonised; and in 1666 a number of new pioneers came to New Providence from Bermuda. Since that date the history of New Providence has, on account of its harbour and geographical position in the sheltered centre of the group, been the history of the Bahamas.

It was a history of ups and downs. In 1670 King

Charles II granted the islands to a body of men led by the Duke of Albemarle, who became the Lords Proprietors. They made honest attempts to develop their holdings, but had a great deal to contend with. Pirates and buccaneers haunted the West Indies and found many a safe retreat in the archipelago, from which they often rendered legitimate trading an impossibility. Then there were fights against imperial rivals: the Spaniards, who claimed the islands as their preserve, and Frenchmen, who were challenging the British for the mastery of North America. After a Spanish attack had been beaten off in 1680, a combined French and Spanish onslaught in July, 1703, had disastrous results for the British. New Providence was occupied, the forts blown up, the guns spiked, the church burnt, the governor captured, and the chief inhabitants conveyed to Havana. Three months later the Spaniards returned and destroyed anything they had overlooked on the first visit. When a new governor, the last appointed by the Lords Proprietors, arrived to replace the man the Spaniards had abducted, he found no one on the island to govern.

After these calamities the pirates practically had the islands to themselves. There was one man in particular, named Edward Teach, an infamous ruffian, who spread terror through the West Indies until he was eventually hunted down and destroyed by the American colonists. Things were in such a chaotic state that the merchants of London and Bristol, who had suffered enormous losses through the activities of the pirates, begged the Crown to take the Bahamas over. Their request was granted, and Captain Woodes Rogers was sent out as the first King's representative. He had a short way with pirates. Either he hanged them forthwith, or gave

them good appointments. It depended on their characters. The right kind of pirate, turned honest, proved most effective in dealing with lawlessness, and was far more feared by the pirates themselves than officials with a blameless record. Rogers, for example, made one pirate Governor of Jamaica, another an Anglican Bishop, and the results were excellent!

With the Bahamas under Crown administration, families of substance were persuaded to settle in the islands and devote themselves to developing them. About the middle of the 18th century the pineapple, the growing of which is now an important industry, was introduced to Eleuthera. Cotton was tried with slave labour on Long Island, but the ravages of the red bug destroyed the crop on several occasions, and the enterprise was abandoned.

When the American Colonies broke away from Britain, large numbers of loyalists crossed to the Bahamas, bringing their Negro slaves with them. It was they who were chiefly responsible for the experiments with cotton. During those critical years, when Britain was fighting France, Spain and Holland, as well as her revolting colonists, New Providence fell first to the Americans, who, however, quickly abandoned it, and then to Spaniards from Cuba. Loyalists of South Carolina retook it, and the Peace of Versailles of 1783 restored it officially to Britain.

There was progress made in the Napoleonic era. The Lords Proprietors were bought out altogether, and money was voted by Parliament for development purposes. The liberation of the slaves caused a temporary setback to the plantation owners; and the separation of the Turks and Caicos Islands, geographically of the Bahamas, but politically joined to Jamaica, was a blow

to the colony, for they had been financially the most successful through the production of salt.

A short period of amazing prosperity was to come to the Bahamas as a result of the American Civil War. The North established a blockade of the ports of the South, and a remarkable business in blockade-running sprang up in consequence, which reached enormous proportions. The nerve-centre of the whole trade was Nassau. To show the effect of all this on the colony, the figures of 1865, when the blockade-running was at its height, may be compared with those of a normal year. The imports rose from about £235,000 to £5,350,000; and the exports from £160,000 to £4,680,000. Conditions at New Providence were fantastic. Men made fortunes overnight. Everyone lived in a state of tension and excitement. Money was carelessly thrown away in handfuls on the silliest extravagances. Those two attendant spectres of too much prosperity, crime and disease, were much in evidence. When the madness was over, perhaps in punishment, a devastating hurricane struck the islands, felled the fruit trees, damaged the valuable sponges, and left a trail of ruin behind it.

But the Bahamas survived both the smiles and scowls of fortune. After the hectic nineteen-sixties New Providence resumed its habitual calm. The boom had enabled the colony to liquidate its debt, but most of the gains of blockade-running were carried off in the pockets of individuals.

Quiet trading brought the Bahamas to the Great War, when they supplied a contingent of their own to the West Indian Regiment. The early war years were a time of prosperity due to the demand for their sponge and sisal; but this was offset later by the entry

of America and the cessation of the tourist traffic. A recovery in post-war years gave new confidence in a bright future for the islands.

The Bahamas have many useful industries of which the chief until the recent decline was sponge-gathering. This still employs many of the 67,000 inhabitants, the majority of whom are descended from liberated Africans, and brings in thousands of pounds a year. The principal sponge-field is what is known as "The Mud." It is a sheet of shallow water 200 miles long by 60 broad, situated north-west of Andros Island. The sponge grows in the mud and is hooked out by the roots, which yield very easily. Here about four-fifths of the whole colonial crop of sponges is obtained, and in the months of February, June and November the whole sponge fleet of the Bahamas will be found at The Mud.

Ranking in importance with the sponges are a sisal hemp industry and the export trade in tomatoes, which are shipped to Canada and the U.S.A. Then come the pineapples of Eleuthera Island, fruit-culture, mahogany, pins and other timber—all adding to the islands' self-supporting activities. But, alas, agriculture does not flourish now as it once did. The colony enjoys a measure of representative government, the Assembly of 29 members being elected by voters having a small property qualification.

JAMAICA

Most of the West Indian Islands were christened by their discoverers in European terminology, but Jamaica, Britain's largest and potentially most valuable possession in this part of the world, retains the old Indian name with the poetical meaning of "the Island of Springs."

It has not always been known as Jamaica, however. When Columbus first discovered it in 1494, he called it Saint Jago, or Santiago, following the usual custom. It was so called when the Spaniards took possession in 1509 and when the old capital, Sant Iago de la Vega, now Spanish Town, was founded fourteen years later.

The early years of Spanish rule in Jamaica were unhappy ones. The peaceful and gentle Arawak Indians, the original inhabitants, were annihilated by enforced slavery and transportation. Yet this did not mean that the Spaniards remained in peaceful possession of their colony. In 1596 the English admiral, Sir Anthony Shirley, made a successful attack, plundered the city, and left it a burning ruin. However, he did not follow up his advantage and attempt to hold the island. In 1635 occurred another English raid under Colonel Jackson; but the Spaniards still clung to Jamaica for another twenty years. Then, in 1655, came the great English onslaught, inspired by Cromwell and led by Admiral Penn and Admiral Venables, which wrested the island from Spain and raised a flag, which has never since been lowered by an enemy.

The British régime in Jamaica was not long in getting under way. After half-a-dozen years of military control, during which all the Spaniards were expelled, a constitutional government on the English pattern was set up. Colonel D'Oyley was Governor-in-Chief, with the old Spanish title of Captain-General of the West Indies. When the Spanish masters were driven out, their frightened slaves took to the mountains of the interior, where they have often proved a source of trouble and anxiety. Their descendants are still there and are known to-day as the Maroons.

The middle of the seventeenth century was the day

of the buccaneers. The West Indies were infested with them, and Jamaica was their chief resort. However, after the Treaty of Madrid in 1670, when Spain at last admitted that Jamaica was British by right of conquest, severe measures were taken against lawlessness, and the pirates were ruthlessly suppressed. Industries were then established; and in return for the blessings of law and order the colony was required to pay a tribute of £8,000 per year to the Crown.

Of the two great industries, which were founded at this date and were destined to bring great wealth to Jamaica, one is not now recalled with much satisfaction. It was the business of slavery. The introduction of Negro labour into the New World led to the formation of the Royal African Company, which obtained a monopoly of the trade so far as the British possessions were concerned. Jamaica in those days became one of the greatest slave-markets in the world.

The slaves were needed in the island itself for work principally on the sugar plantations. This source of wealth was an early enterprise, the first pot of sugar being sent to London in 1673. Sugar was the mainstay of Jamaica for generations and made fortunes for the planters up to the early decades of last century. Then a series of (to them) disastrous events blotted out their sun of prosperity. The first of these events was the abolition of slavery, the second was the introduction of free trade, and the third was the competition of beet-sugar. In 1832, two years before the abolition, there was a revolt of the Negroes accompanied by loss of life and damage to property. After the liberations, the planters were left in desperate straits, for the compensation allowed by the government did not by any means cover their losses and, in fact, did little more than meet

their obligations. Free trade, withdrawing the preference Jamaica sugar had enjoyed in the British market, was a knock-out blow for many, already weakened by abolition. Estates were sold for what they would fetch, and the whole island felt the pinch of financial stringency. The rise of beet-sugar made a return of the good old days seem well nigh an impossibility.

After experiencing such wonderful times, the lot of impoverished Jamaica was a hard one. Down the years she had been spared the horror of foreign invasion, to which many of the West Indian islands had had to submit, although it was only Rodney's victory off Dominica that staved off a French invasion in 1782. With the sugar trade ruined, unrest became rife, and there was such serious trouble with the Negroes in 1865 that the constitution was withdrawn and martial law proclaimed. Thereafter the crown colony system was inaugurated, which continued until 1884, when a new constitution was granted. To-day the Governor is assisted by a Privy Council of not more than eight members, and a Legislative Council which consists of certain *ex officio* members, ten nominated members, and fourteen elected by the people, the franchise including women voters.

The old capital, Spanish Town or Sant Iago de la Vega, remained the seat of government until 1872, when it yielded pride of place to Kingston. It has now lost its old importance, but is still of interest to the visitor. There is a cathedral, in which many of Jamaica's governors are buried, and an imposing memorial to Admiral Rodney, who is always regarded as the island's deliverer from the foreign menace. The population of Spanish Town is now about 8,700, whereas the modern capital of Kingston with Port Royal

hard by is 62,700. Other towns are Montego Bay, a favourite bathing resort, and Port Antonio, important for the shipment of fruit.

Kingston is situated on the south coast of the island in the County of Surrey. (Jamaica is divided into three counties with the familiar names of Surrey, Middlesex and Cornwall.) The harbour is a fine one, the best of the many excellent natural harbours which the colony possesses. Port Royal is a naval station, one of the few fortified places in the British West Indies. Kingston is a fine city, worthy to be the centre of this empire in miniature. It is necessarily modern, for it has risen in our own time from the wreckage of a great catastrophe.

The twin banes of Jamaica have been the hurricane and the earthquake. Until a century ago hurricanes frequently hit the island with devastating effect, but of recent years they appear to have passed it by. Not so the earthquakes. There was a terrible visitation in 1692 when most of what was then Port Royal slipped into the sea. But a worse disaster occurred as recently as 1907. On January 14th of that year, Kingston was shaken with such terrific force that in one short hour the old town was reduced to a shapeless, smouldering ruin, and Port Royal was again wiped out. People who had left a smiling capital in the morning returned to gaze with horror-stricken eyes on a blackened wilderness which covered a thousand dead. Citizens, who had awakened prosperous, by sunset had lost everything they possessed. But courage triumphed over catastrophe, and a new Kingston arose, built, on modern lines, of reinforced concrete with trellis-work of steel girders, so that if ever again the city were shaken to its foundations, the worse results might be averted.

But stories of earthquake and hurricane do not and should not deter those who wish to visit what has been described as the "Jewel of the West Indies." Nature in her angry mood is a rare phenomenon. The warmth and sunshine of the climate, the delightfully mild and equable conditions in the uplands, offer health and strength to all and a surcease to those suffering from tubercular and rheumatic complaints. The scenery is very lovely. The lofty mountains, ascending by a series of ridges from the margin of the sea, reach their culmination in the wonderful Blue Mountains, the loftiest point of which, known as the Peak, is 7,388 feet high. All visitors make the trip to these haze-crowned heights, and in doing so journey through some of the finest scenery in the West Indies, past the many rushing, foaming rivers, the valleys decked in luxurious vegetation, the myriads of gay plants and flowers, the woods of orchids, the quaint cactus, and the queer sensitive plant. One of the most pleasing features of Jamaica is its animal life. The song-birds are numerous and beautiful; the fireflies and lantern beetles are the most fascinating members of the insect family; the reptiles are many, but rarely dangerous; the land-crab is a table delicacy; the seas swarm with turtles, fish of all kinds, seals, even some crocodiles.

The population of Jamaica is a mixed one. In these 4,450 square miles of territory live about 1,140,000 people. Only two per cent are white. The remainder are made up of the Maroons, mentioned above as descendants of the slaves of the Spaniards; descendants of imported African slaves; half-castes of British and African parentage; Indian coolies, and some Chinese. The Maroons take little part in the corporate life of the community. The half-castes are found in trades

and professions. The Negroes are the not very energetic workers in the fields. They will labour for only four days a week, care little for the future, have small sense of responsibility, and, being able to subsist on very little indeed, are satisfied once that little has been acquired.

The chief industries of Jamaica, in which this motley population is engaged, are fruit culture, planting and stock-raising. Prosperity of recent years has smiled only in fitful bursts of sunshine. Sugar has suffered alarming turns of fortune. Jamaica rum, however, has won a well-deserved reputation as the best in the world. Jamaica coffee fetches a good price in the world's markets. Cocoa is extensively cultivated. The important fruit trade, chiefly in bananas, oranges, grape-fruit and coco-nuts, has been sedulously fostered and is capable of being expanded to imposing proportions. The Guinea grass, which grows wild, is the finest pasturage to be found anywhere and facilitates the rearing of livestock. From the woods valuable dyes, drugs and spices are extracted, as well as materials for cabinet-making.

But it would be idle to pretend that all is well in the colony. In 1938 serious riots occurred, occasioned by the low wages of the West Indian and his depressed standard of living. It was a stern reminder that the natural resources of the island have not been exploited as they should. The troubles, however, appear to have taught their lessons. A new land scheme has been launched with the object of settling the Negroes on what are some of the most naturally fruitful acres in the Empire; and a Royal Commission was appointed to find possible openings for making Jamaica more self-supporting and able, with the necessary financial assistance

from the mother country, to profit by her unique advantages and opportunities.

TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS

In addition to being the centre of the British West Indies, Jamaica has certain dependencies of her own. The most important of these are the Turks and Caicos Islands. They are no less than 450 miles distant and belong geographically to the Bahamas, to which they are a sort of appendage. Actually they were administered as part of the Bahamas until 1848. They were then separated, and after a not very satisfactory existence on their own, were annexed to Jamaica in 1873.

The islands are small—only 170 square miles in all—and the population numbers about 5,300, almost all Negroes. There are over thirty small crags and reefs, but only eight are inhabited. The largest of the group is Grand Caicos, but the most important is Grand Turk, from which the Commissioner and his Legislative Board of seven members govern the dependency. There are about 1,600 people on Grand Turk, which is seven miles long and contains a cable station.

Salt-raking is the most important industry of the Turks and Caicos Islands, which have the reputation of producing the world's finest brand of salt. Sponge and fibre industries assist the islands' employment.

THE CAYMAN AND THE CAYS

The Caymans, named after an Indian word meaning "alligators," are a small group of three islands, consisting of Grand Cayman, Cayman Brac, and Little

Cayman. It is said that they were originally discovered by Columbus who named them Las Tortugas. On the hundred square miles of island territory there are about 6,000 people engaged in turtle-fishing, boat-building and coco-nut planting. Their little capital is George-town on Grand Cayman with a population of 1,350, one of them being the Commissioner, and a further twenty-four, the J.P.'s appointed by the Governor of Jamaica, to whom the Caymans' administration is responsible.

The remaining dependencies of Jamaica are the Morant Cays and Pedro Cays, islands valuable for their guano.

THE LEEWARD ISLANDS

The Leewards are the most northerly part of that division of the West Indies known as the Lesser Antilles. They owe their name to the fact that they are more sheltered than the Windward Islands, and less exposed to the prevailing gales which often blow with hurricane force in these parts.

The Leeward Islands are a Federal Colony consisting until recently of five, and now of four, Presidencies. The names of these Presidencies are (1) Antigua, with Barbuda and Redonda; (2) St. Kitts and Nevis, with Anguilla; (3) Montserrat; (4) The British Virgin Islands, with Sombrero. In 1937 Dominica, which constituted the fifth Presidency, received Parliamentary sanction to separate from the group and become a colony on its own in association with the Windward Islands. Some time elapsed, however, before the transfer could be effected.

The Federal Government consists of a Governor, an

Executive Council nominated by the Crown, and a General Legislative Council, half official, half elective, over which the Governor presides. Each Presidency has also its own government for its local affairs, the commissioners and administrators being subordinate to the Governor of the colony. The islands in the Leeward Group are principally engaged in the production of sugar.

ANTIGUA WITH BARBUDA AND REDONDA

Antigua is the seat of the federal government and the residence of the colonial governor. On its 108 square miles lives a population of 35,000, mostly concerned with the cultivation of the sugar cane. Cotton is also planted, but not on any large scale; and the export trade, which is chiefly with the United States, contains molasses, tamarinds, pineapples and arrowroot.

The chief town of Antigua is St. John, where about 10,000 of the people dwell. It is rather a pretty little town, the houses being mostly of the bungalow type. The coastal scenery with its high rocks and many indentations is picturesque. The harbour is sheltered and extensive, but there is no very great depth of water, and embarking and disembarking from large vessels has to be accomplished by means of tenders. The view from the town, most of which is built on a rocky height overlooking the harbour, is very fine.

Antigua is different in character to most of the West Indies. There is no wooded chain of mountains in the interior, but flatter, more open, rolling country that might almost remind the homesick of the south of England. The absence of trees and hills affects the climate. Rain-fall is uncertain, and droughts are frequent. There are

no rivers in the island and only a few springs, so that water is an ever-present problem. Antigua is tropical, but fairly healthy. The dry atmosphere is considered most beneficial to pulmonary patients. The best time to visit the island is between November and April.

Antigua was yet another discovery of Christopher Columbus, who, it is believed, named it after a church in Seville, Santa Maria la Antigua. The Spaniards paying no heed to it, it remained uninhabited until English settlers arrived in 1632. A further settlement was made thirty years later when Charles II granted the islands to Lord Willoughby. But Britain did not remain in peaceful possession. The French descended upon the colonists and ravaged the island in 1666, although it was restored the next year under the Treaty of Breda. It has not been out of British hands since.

Antigua's dependency, Barbuda, was annexed by Britain in 1628. In 1680 it was bestowed on the Codrington family, who ruled in feudal fashion for two centuries. It lies some thirty miles north of Antigua, but resembles it in being low and flat. It is, however, densely wooded, and the soil in parts is very fertile. There are less than a thousand people on Barbuda, who are busy making a living from growing cotton, pepper and tobacco. The island is an attraction to sportsmen for its numbers of wild deer and excellent fishing, chiefly tarpon.

Antigua's other protégée is Redonda, a tiny island one square mile in area. It is really a rocky mountain shooting up out of the sea to a height of a thousand feet. It was discovered in 1865 and is important for its phosphate of alumina which is taken by the U.S.A. Less than a score of people make Redonda their home.

ST. KITTS AND NEVIS WITH ANGUILLA

These three islands were united to make one Presidency of the Leewards in 1882. St. Kitts and Nevis are close together; only two miles apart at the narrowest point of the strait dividing them. But Anguilla is sixty miles to the north-west of St. Kitts and separated from it by part of the French West Indies. If the islands were placed together the area would equal that of the County of Rutland. The number of the people is about 37,500.

St. Kitts is the principal island of the Presidency. Its name is a popular abbreviation of St. Christopher's, and besides being called after the great Columbus himself, it is actually Britain's oldest possession in the West Indies. Although Columbus was there in 1493, it was 130 years before the first settlement was made, and that was by Englishmen under Sir Thomas Warner. Five years later the French arrived, and the two nations shared the island between them for the best part of a century. But in 1713 came the Peace of Utrecht, which gave Britain so many of her colonies in the New World, and the complete possession of St. Kitts was among the provisions of the treaty. While the destiny of the West Indies was uncertain, and intense rivalry among the European powers continued, the island was strongly fortified. It was regarded as quite as important to the defence of British interest in the West Indies as Gibraltar is to her Mediterranean interests. Now, however, its military importance has practically disappeared, both because the West Indian position is stabilised and because it could not possibly resist a battering by modern artillery.

St. Kitts is a pleasant and fertile island with a climate

that is distinctly good for the tropics, being dry and cooled by the sea breezes. It is elongated in shape, 28 miles at its longest and about five miles wide, with a range of hills down the centre, reaching its highest point of 3,700 feet in Mount Misery, which is really the projecting lip of a large crater. When the island was occupied by both British and French, one lot of settlers lived on one side of the mountains, and the other on the other side. Across the mountain range there is still the mule track, which was the old communication between the British and French colonies. There is plenty to remind the traveller in the mountains that St. Kitts is volcanic and by no means extinct. Up one side of the Mount Misery crater are hundreds of jets of steam, busy witnesses of forces of Nature still slumbering uneasily beneath. It is not anticipated, however, that any serious disturbance will trouble the island.

Most of the inhabitants on St. Kitts are Negroes engaged in the great industry of sugar. It is one of the best of all the West Indies for the job, and the plantations stretch in a ring round the island and sweep from the sea-line up the lower slopes of the central range. On the upper slopes are excellent pasture lands for cattle. Higher still are dense woods. There has been some increase in the growth of cotton recently, but St. Kitts still relies on its sugar.

St. Kitts' chief town is Basseterre. It is a healthy little place of about 8,000 people, and besides having points of interest of its own is the centre for an exploration of the island. It is the hub of St. Kitts's industrial life as well as being the capital of the Presidency.

Nevis, St. Kitts's partner, is a wonderful-looking island. It appears from a distance out at sea like a perfect cone. Although the whole area is only some

fifty square miles, the central peak is as high as Snowdon. Like many of its neighbours, it is volcanic, and there are medicinal springs and large deposits of sulphur. The sulphur springs are considered excellent for rheumatism. The whole atmosphere of Nevis is healthy, the only drawback being the terrific storms which sometimes flay the island. There is, of course, some risk of earth tremors. A terrible earthquake occurred in 1680, when Jamestown, then the island's capital, situated on the north-west coast, was overwhelmed and all its people and property lost.

The 14,000 inhabitants of Nevis depend chiefly on their exports of cotton and coco-nut. Their chief town is Charlestown, pleasantly situated on a wide bay in the south-west. Nevis, however, is a colony that has declined in population, prosperity and importance, owing to the abolition of the lucrative trade in which it once engaged.

After the island was discovered by Columbus on his 1498 voyage and named Nieve, or snow-white, on account of the clouds that often crown its peak, it was left unoccupied until the English came in 1628. The colony thereafter devoted itself to the slave trade and became the chief market in human material for the West Indies. Great wealth and years of undimmed prosperity resulted from this traffic, which persisted until the British Empire put an end to slavery in 1834. Nevis was then left high and dry, and has never found a substitute industry anything like so lucrative. Reminders of the "good old days" are met with everywhere in the island. Charlestown itself is a shrunken city; and there are ruins of the fine mansions, once owned by the slave magnates, on every side. One of these mansions named Montpelier has an interesting

association with Nelson, who for a time made his home on the island, and married Mrs. Francis Nisbet, the widow of a Nevis doctor.

The third island of the Presidency, Anguilla, or the snake, is quite small—only 16 miles long and from one to three wide. It is very flat, and owing to the past activities of the charcoal-burners, is now practically denuded of trees. The 5,500 people, mostly Negroes, who live on it are nearly all engaged in the production of salt.

MONTSERRAT

Montserrat, though quite a small island of $32\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, is a Presidency on its own. It is a popular resort, being at once one of the healthiest of the Leewards and one of the most beautiful of the Lesser Antilles. There are about 14,000 people there, nearly all coloured, 1,700 of whom live in the little capital of Plymouth. This is a most picturesque place, with its bungalow houses and rich tropical vegetation, the fertile hills behind, and the shining blue sea at its feet.

Montserrat is really a cluster of volcanic peaks rising to a maximum of 3,000 feet. The rugged crags are in striking contrast to the fertile tracts, which are extensively cultivated. Many of the heights are covered with forests; and for diversity of scene the island is excelled by few of its fellows. Volcanic action is not extinct, and there is a *soufrière* still active in the south.

When Columbus found the island in 1493, he named it after Montserrado in Spain. It was colonised by Irishmen in the first instance, but the British have not always been in possession. It was conquered by the French in 1664, only to be restored four years later.

It capitulated to the French again in 1782, but once more it was returned to Britain (1784) to remain finally in her hands. Montserrat's chief enemy, however, has been the hurricane. There were two terrible visitations in 1924 and 1928, which left a ghastly trail of devastation behind. Between 1933 and 1935 serious damage was done by earthquakes.

Montserrat is best known to most people through the excellency of its lime-juice, which has won an enviable reputation. There are tens of thousands of these limes on the island, which look extraordinarily beautiful when in full blossom. The scent is intoxicating and the fruit a lovely sight. Cotton, onions and tomatoes are the other industries keeping most people busy.

BRITISH VIRGIN ISLANDS WITH SOMBRERO

The Virgin Islands are shared between Britain and the United States. America's half was formerly known as the Danish West Indies and were bought from Denmark in 1916. Britain had taken possession of them more than once in the past, but had always restored them to their original owners. The Virgin Islands as a whole act as a link between the Greater and Lesser Antilles. Columbus discovered them on his second voyage, in 1494, and named them *Las Virgenes* after St. Ursula and her companions. They scarcely lived up to their name, for in the 17th century they were completely under the thumb of the buccaneers.

Britain obtained her share of the islands in 1666, when her colonists established themselves on Tortola and were able to gain a permanent footing. Besides Tortola, the largest, the group contains, among others, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, and Jost van Dykes.

This Presidency of the Leewards is small both in size and numbers. The islands, mostly rocky, do not amount to sixty square miles altogether, and the inhabitants are not many more than 6,000. They are chiefly interested in sugar-cane and coco-nuts, although they have other useful lines in livestock, poultry, fishing, mahogany and charcoal burning. The little capital is Road Town on Tortola.

The small island of Sombrero, which is attached to the British Virgin Islands to make up the Presidency, is chiefly important for the great lighthouse built upon it. At one time phosphate of lime was quarried there, but it is the lighthouse which makes most people, mainly sea-captains, thankful for the possession of the island nowadays.

DOMINICA

If we look at the crescent of islands forming the eastern portion of the West Indies, we find in order, from north to south, the Leeward Islands belonging to Britain, Guadaloupe belonging to France, Dominica (British), Martinique (French), and the Windward Islands (British).

Dominica, it is obvious, is in a bad strategic position, sandwiched between the French possessions and cut off from the British islands north and south. In the past it has suffered severely from this circumstance. First settled in 1632 by French colonists, who made friends with the native Caribs, it was a source of bickering between France and Britain for centuries.

France obtained the tighter grip because there were more French settlers there than British. Then Britain forced her to surrender the island in 1761, during the

Seven Years War. A French force from Martinique recaptured it in 1778, but four years later came Admiral Rodney's great victory over Comte de Grasse and the French fleet, which took place just north of the island. This not only made Dominica British again, but saved us from being overwhelmed in a war in which we were fighting France, Spain, Holland and America at the same time.

But Dominica's troubles were not over yet, in spite of the fact that her once-thriving trade lay in ruins. During the first part of the Napoleonic War she was attacked from Guadeloupe. She managed to stave that danger off, but in 1805 the French General la Grange landed with 4,000 men and over ran all the habitable and cultivated parts of the island, pillaging, destroying, and burning. Despite this terrible experience, the worst in Dominica's history and never forgotten, not even today, the colony survived, and the French, by losing the war, failed to retain their hold. At the peace the fair island was British once more, and there has been no change of flag since.

In 1937 this beautiful West Indian island received special consideration from the Imperial Parliament. Arrangements were made to detach it from the colony of the Leeward Islands to the north, with which it had been federated under a rather complicated system since 1871, and create it a colony on its own in association with the Windward Islands to the south. There were good reasons for the change. Dominica had not been prospering. In fact, it had only been kept going by grants from the British Treasury. It was hoped that in its new status as an independent colony administered with the Windward Group, it would have a better chance of success.

Actually Dominica has little in common with the Leeward Islands, in which it formed one of the five presidencies for nearly seventy years. The population is a mixed one, composed of a few white descendants of British and French settlers, some thousands of Negroes, relics of the slave system, and a small number of Caribs, who represent the aboriginal and almost extinct West Indian race. Of these remaining Caribs a few are pure-breds, but most of them are of mixed Negro and Carib blood. The language spoken is not English, but a sort of French patois; and the religion of the majority is Roman Catholicism.

These, however, are not the only ways in which Dominica differs from the rest of the Protestant, English-speaking Leewards. Her business and commercial interests differ, too. The Leeward Islands are concerned above all else with the production of sugar, while Dominica cannot raise sugar profitably. Her strong lines are oranges, limes, bananas, and grape-fruit. These are the principal exports of the chief islands of the Windwards; and those colonies engaged in the same industry are more likely to work satisfactorily together and assist one another in devising co-operative marketing schemes and stimulating a demand for their products.

Dominica has not benefited, as others of the West Indies have to some extent benefited, under the adoption of a tariff policy by Britain, accompanied by a wide system of imperial preference. Nor has she gained to the same extent from the expansion of the fruit industry. Her limes, her principal source of wealth in the past, have been ravaged by disease, and, worse still, the demand for them has dwindled.

From the point of view of scenery, Dominica is one of the loveliest places in the Empire. It is never too

hot there : never really cold. The island is well watered by abundant rain ; there are many tumbling mountain streams full of fish, thick, luxuriant vegetation, palm and mango, and a fertile soil. Although only about the size of Anglesey, the mountains are lofty and rugged, the highest peak, Morne Diablotin, being half as high again as Snowdon.

Amongst its many natural beauties Dominica has one feature that is quite extraordinary. This is the far-famed Boiling Lake. It owes its existence to the volcanic nature of the island. How deep it is no one knows. The banks are so precipitous that a few yards from the shore the depth of the water is as much as 300 feet. The surface seethes and dances, and sometimes is raised several feet above the normal by the pressure of gases from beneath. The visitor to the Lake must be careful because at times the fumes given off are poisonous and dangerous. Some sixty years ago there was a great eruption here of volcanic ash. The Boiling Lake is 2,300 feet up in the mountains, but one has not to go so far for signs of volcanic activity, for there are hot springs and jets of escaping steam everywhere.

Dominica was given its name by Columbus when he discovered it on November 3rd, 1493. That day happened to be a Sunday, *Dies Dominica* or the Lord's Day, and Columbus's choice was a pleasing and appropriate one.

The best time to visit Dominica is between November and June. The climate then is extremely healthy and agreeable, and particularly helpful to rheumatic and pulmonary patients. You land at the capital of Roseau, an attractive town of some 9,000 inhabitants on the south-west coast. As you stream towards it, it promises well for the delights awaiting you in Dominica, with the

variegated roofs of its houses, its tinted walls, and its thick clumps of palms and mangoes. Among the colony's valuable assets are the Botanical Gardens, which contain one of the finest collections of tropical plants ever made.

THE WINDWARD ISLANDS

There is nothing rigid about the British system of colonial government. No hard and fast rules are adhered to, but an appropriate type of administration is adapted to the peculiar needs of each separate colony. It might be assumed that what had proved satisfactory in governing the Leeward Islands would be repeated in that other and somewhat similar group of West Indian Islands, the Windwards. But whereas the Leewards have a common Governor and a general Legislative Council with authority over the local administrations of the island-presidencies, each of the Windwards is a colony on its own, subordinate to no central council, but resembling the Leewards in having the same governor as its partners. Thus it was necessary when planning to transfer Dominica from the Leeward to the Windward group to allow for raising its status from presidency to colony in order that it might fit into the different system there in force.

The Windward Islands consist of Grenada, St. Vincent and St. Lucia, and a chain of small islands known as the Grenadines which are situated between St. Vincent and Grenada and are partly ruled by one colony and partly by the other. These island-colonies are not bound by common laws, finance or tariffs any more than they are ruled by a common administration. They retain their own institutions, and the chief

authority in each is the Administrator, who is responsible to the Colonial Governor alone.

The Windwards owe their name to their geographical position, exposed as they are to the north-east trade-winds to a greater extent than any others of the Lesser Antilles. They are just over 500 square miles in area, and have a total population approaching 200,000. Unlike the Leewards, which are mostly concerned with sugar, the Windwards depend for their prosperity largely upon fruit; and while they are jealous of their administrative independence, they do not hesitate to unite for certain matters that vitally affect them all.

GRENADA

The Governor of the Windward Islands has his official residence in Grenada, which for many purposes may be considered as the general headquarters of the group. The island is about 96 miles north of Trinidad and 68 miles from its neighbour St. Vincent. Oval in shape and extremely beautiful, it measures about 133 square miles and supports a population of about 87,000.

A very small percentage of these people are white. The great majority are Negroes and mulattoes, with a sprinkling of East Indians. They are speaking English more and more, but their language until the present generation has been a species of French patois, which is heard in more than one island in this part of the West Indies.

The people find plenty of occupation on the fertile land. Cocoa is the staple product and saved Granada from the severity of the depression that cast so great a gloom over the sugar islands. Fruit is making giant strides, and the nutmegs are famous. Supporting lines

are coffee, cotton and rubber. The wonderful virgin forests of Grenada yield a wealth of timbers, which make an important contribution to the activities of the colony.

Grenada enjoys the reputation of being among the most lovely places in the West Indies. The central mountain range is heavily wooded and, by throwing out green-mantled spurs, forms picturesque and fertile valleys. The chief scenic wonder they have to show to visitors is Grand Etang, a circular lake thirteen acres in extent, lying in an ancient crater. Round all sides rise rugged peaks, while gorgeous tropical vegetation ravishes the eye. Near the lake is a sanatorium, where numerous patients have received their healings. The rivers are many, but short, and springs are everywhere, both hot and cold.

Grenada's capital is St. George's, on the south-west coast. It stands on a lava peninsula running out into the sea and forming one side of an excellent land-locked harbour. At the end of the peninsula is the old Fort St. George, where nothing more formidable than a saluting battery exists nowadays. The town is surrounded by a circle of hills, and on the sides of these the red-bricked houses mount tier upon tier. St. George's is a perfect resort for the artist and yachtsman, and devotees of sea-bathing would have to go far to find a better beach.

The rainfall of St. George's is about 80 inches a year only. In some parts of the island it is as much as 200 inches, for Grenada is tropical. But the climate is not unhealthy, and serious epidemics are rare. The best months for a visit are between November and April, when the trade-winds cool the atmosphere and provide an equable temperature.

When Columbus first discovered Grenada in 1498, he named it Conception. The Spanish took no steps to settle it; nor did the British, to whom it was granted in 1627. The French were the first on the spot after Du Parquet, Governor of Martinique, had purchased it. The new-comers were well received by the Carib inhabitants, but ill repaid their welcome by cruelly exterminating them. Grenada passed to the French West Indian Company and later to the Crown. The cocoa, which has done such great service to the island, was introduced, with coffee and cotton, in 1714. During the Seven Years War Grenada surrendered to the British and was yielded up by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Under the Count d'Estaing the French recovered it in 1779, but four years later the Peace of Versailles restored it to Britain. The French next stirred the natives to revolt, and this had to be put down sternly by Sir Ralph Abercromby in 1796. After that there was no more trouble.

Here, as elsewhere, the emancipation of the slaves caused serious dislocation on the plantations. To meet the acute labour problem, East Indians were introduced. The crown colony system is now in force. The Governor of the whole colony of the Windwards presides over Grenada's Legislative Council consisting of three official, four unofficial, and seven elected members. The people elect also part of the boards which administer local affairs in each district.

ST. VINCENT

There is not much to choose between Grenada and St. Vincent as regards size, but the latter with 57,000 inhabitants has some 30,000 fewer than the senior

island. St. Vincent is less French and more English in character than Grenada or St. Lucia. It maintains the reputation for scenic beauty which attaches to all the Windwards. It is, like its neighbours, volcanic, and the range of hills that forms its backbone has slopes and spurs adorned with delightful woods and valleys of fertile soil. Dominating the chain is the volcano called the Soufrière, 3,500 feet in height. It has played a disturbing part in the island's history. There was an eruption here in 1821; but more disastrous was the terrible outbreak in May 1902, which coincided with that in the French island of Martinique. Much of the Carib country in the north was devastated, sugar and arrowroot plantations were destroyed, and the death roll amounted to 2,000. Kingston, St. Vincent's capital, was badly damaged, and some of the volcanic ash reached Barbados, 95 miles away. The disaster seemed greater at the time than actually proved to be the case, for in those districts which escaped the lava flow and suffered nothing worse than a blanketing of ash, agriculture revived.

This revival was essential to St. Vincent's continued existence as a self-supporting community. The island has won a deserved reputation for the excellence of its arrowroot. The Sea Island cotton, too, introduced in 1903, is the finest produced in the British Empire and possibly beyond it. Cocoa, coffee, rum, spices, sugar, molasses, coco-nuts and copra are additional lines. Although to a great extent the land is in the possession of a few people, there is a government scheme for establishing peasant proprietors on their own plantations.

The climate of St. Vincent for a tropical island is fairly good. The best time to visit it is during the winter, when conditions are very pleasant. Apart from

the eruption danger, the only real climatic enemy is the hurricane. There was a severe visitation in 1780 and again in 1898. One lands at Kingston, a charming little town of multi-coloured houses, built on a well-chosen spot on the south-west coast. Mount St. Andrew, 2,600 feet, stands like a sentinel over the town, guarding its 4,500 inhabitants.

In common with all the Windwards, St. Vincent has had a chequered career, passing from one master to another and back again. Its discovery is presumed to be one more feather in the cap of Columbus as a result of his voyage in 1498; but the Spaniards made no effort at settlement, and the aboriginal Caribs were left in undisturbed possession. Charles I included the island in a grant to the Earl of Carlisle in 1627, but subsequently both France and Britain agreed to recognise it as neutral ground. Charles II regranted it to Lord Willoughby in 1672, but it was not until the Duke of Montague received it in 1722 that any real efforts were made to settle it. However, the French stepped in and objected, and by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 the old neutrality arrangement was reaffirmed.

There came the Seven Years War, so successful to Britain, when St. Vincent was captured by General Monckton, and British sovereignty recognised by the treaty of 1763. But the Caribs refused to accept this development, and rose in rebellion. An agreement was made and lands reserved for them in the north, but this did not end their hostility. During the American War of Independence France obtained possession of the island, and held it for four years, until the Peace of Versailles, 1783, when she had to return it. But she did not renounce her claims and stirred up the Caribs to serious rebellion again in 1795. She gave the rebels

so much assistance, that the British had the utmost difficulty in putting the rising down, and when it was over, the majority of the 'Caribs were deported to British Honduras as a necessary measure of precaution. However, St. Vincent still gives opportunities for studying these aboriginal inhabitants of the West Indies. In the early days they were much feared both for their ferocious opposition to the whites and their cannibalistic practices. Their relics and antiquities make a considerable trade for the island, but the purchaser has to be something of an expert if he is not going to be fobbed off with some clever, but spurious, imitation.

The slaves were freed in St. Vincent in 1838, and the inevitable labour problems resulted. These were solved to some extent by an influx of Portuguese workmen, no less than 2,400 of whom had come by 1846. The crown colony system of government until lately consisted of a Legislative Council made up of the Administrator, three official and four unofficial nominated members. It dated from 1877. Recent changes have reconstituted the Council, which now comprises the Governor, three ex-officio, four nominated, and five elected members.

THE GRENADINES

Between Grenada and St. Vincent lies a chain of small islands known as the Grenadines. Counting the islets and bare rocks, there are about a hundred of them, stretching for a distance of sixty miles. The total area is about 8,500 acres and the population something over 7,000.

The Grenadines are mostly included within the government of St. Vincent. The chief among these is

the island of Bequia, which, however, is not very valuable from an agricultural point of view owing to the scarcity of water. The game, however, is plentiful. The largest island of the group is Carriacou, which is administered by Grenada. This is about 13 square miles and has a fairly dense population of Negroes, most of whom live in the town of Hillsborough on the west coast. Oysters, cattle, and cotton, as well as turtles, are the businesses that keep them going.

ST. LUCIA

By St. Lucia's capital of Castries stands an elevation of 800 feet known as the Morne Fortunée. It used to be said that whoever held the Morne, held St. Lucia, and those who held St. Lucia, held the West Indies. Many battles have raged round the Morne, with now one side, now the other, successful. Owing to the proximity of the island to the French possession of Martinique, and owing again to its recognised strategic importance, the British experienced great difficulty in hanging on to it. At one time it was the second most important military station in the Caribbean, and the old military barracks, once so much in demand, are still on view.

Columbus is supposed to have discovered St. Lucia in 1502 and to have named it after the saint whose day it happened to be. The English came along in 1605 and tried to obtain a footing, but the Caribs killed them all. Both Britain and France claimed the island and kept up the dispute for two hundred years, each king granting it to various of his subjects. The English seem to have aroused the special hostility of the Caribs, for

when 130 of them from St. Kitts made another attempt to settle St. Lucia in 1638, they were viciously repulsed. Frenchmen from Martinique, however, were able to make friends with the Aborigines and opened the French history of the island in 1650.

Thirteen years later the English under Thomas Warner overcame the French and held the island for four years until the Peace of Breda (1667) restored it to France, who made it a dependency of Martinique. But Britain did not accept this situation and claimed St. Lucia as a dependency of Barbados. In fact, George I bestowed it on the Duke of Montague, but armed forces from Martinique put an end to that episode. Next, the experiment was tried of recognising the island as neutral, but this did not last for long. Rodney and General Monckton captured it in 1762, only to see it returned to the original owners the next year, when Britain recognised France's claims as one of the provisions of the Treaty of Paris.

The French then made an honest effort to do something with the island. Planters arrived from other parts of the West Indies to sow cotton and sugar. In a few years a population of 15,000, mostly Negro slaves, was working the plantations. But war was not long absent. In 1778 the British retook St. Lucia, and Rodney used the island's excellent harbours to mobilise his fleet for the great victory over de Grasse, off Dominica, in 1782. Once again St. Lucia was returned to France (1783) and still once more (1794) fell to the British, led on this occasion by Admiral Jervis (Lord St. Vincent). Next year it was recovered for revolutionary France by a follower of Robespierre's named Victor Hugues, who was backed by the slaves he incited to rebellion. General Abercromby, Sir John Moore and 12,000

British troops had as much as they could do to quash the Hugues rising. It seemed to have been waste of time, for by the Treaty of Amiens, 1802, Napoleon secured the return of St. Lucia, intending to make it the capital of the Lesser Antilles.

St. Lucia's turbulent history was now drawing to an end. It capitulated to a British attack for the last time in 1803, and was finally ceded in 1814. Britain's past experiences had been so chequered that she retained a strong garrison in the island, withdrawing troops only in 1905, when the understanding with France made their further presence unnecessary. Since those days St. Lucia's troubles have been largely economic. The wars played havoc with the plantations. Disease reduced the ranks of the workers. The freeing of the slaves crippled the planters. The competition of the beet-sugar hit the staple industry hard. The situation was eased by the introduction of cocoa, and the deep and rich soil is now made to yield profitable crops and fruits. Bananas, rum, lime-juice, and other products are good secondary lines to cocoa and sugar. Very fine timber is also obtained from the forests for cabinet work.

St. Lucia is still very French in character, although only 21 miles divide it from the English St. Vincent. The Negroes, who make up the bulk of the 66,000 inhabitants, speak a French patois. The white inhabitants are to a large extent creoles of French descent. The laws of the island are derived from those which were in force in France under the monarchy. In the capital, Castries, even the names over the shops are French.

Castries itself is a town of between 6,000 and 7,000 people. It stands on one of the finest harbours in the West Indies, and is the Navy's principal coaling station

in this part of the Empire. It is not always that the deep water of Port Castries is found in the island harbours. For this reason St. Lucia has been one of the few fortified places in the British West Indies. The only other town of importance in the island is Soufrière, where Louis XVI of France had baths erected for his troops in the Windward Islands. The entrance to the harbour of Soufrière is marked by Les Pitons, one of the most remarkable of natural features. They are pyramids of rock rising straight out of the sea to a height of about 2,700 feet. Their slopes, resting at an angle of 60 degrees, are covered with densest vegetation.

St. Lucia is not only the largest, but, as some claim, the most beautiful of the Windwards. The claim is a substantial one, for all the islands are scenically lovely. But the high mountains rising sheer from the sea, the dense forests, the smiling, fertile plains, the frowning precipices, the dark ravines, the sheltered coves and sweeping bays, incline one to admit that St. Lucia yields the palm to no rival.

BARBADOS

Barbados is the most windward of the West Indies. It lies to the east of the Windward Islands themselves. It is in the very path of the great hurricanes which sweep this quarter of the globe, and has suffered far more from them than from assaults by enemies. Indeed, no enemy has ever succeeded in wresting Barbados, even temporarily, from Britain's grasp; but the hurricanes of 1780, 1831 and 1898—to mention the worst—so devastated the colony that the Home Government had to come to its rescue.

Barbados is rather larger than the Isle of Wight, and the inhabitants number nearly 190,000. It has, therefore, to face a perplexing problem as one of the most densely populated parts of the Empire. The coloured people outnumber the white by nine to one. They are Negroes, but rather different from the Negroes found in other colonies of the West Indies. They have certain distinctive features by which they can be recognised; they speak a dialect of their own; they are deeply attached to their island home; and they are superior to their neighbours in intelligence and education. Education, indeed, is a subject pursued with considerable enthusiasm in Barbados. Besides the good schools for boys and girls, the island is the only one of the West Indian colonies which provides a local university training—at Codrington College, founded under the will of Christopher Codrington. Colonel Codrington was born in Barbados, served with distinction in the British Army, was Captain-General of the Leeward Islands, and retired to his Barbados estates, where he died in 1710. He left the estates to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, with the express purpose of founding a college in his native island. The building was erected between 1714 and 1742, and his college is now affiliated to Durham University.

No one seems certain of the derivation of the name, Barbados. All that can be learnt of the island's ancient history is contained in the traces of the original Carib inhabitants, traces which are more numerous than in other parts of the Antilles. Known history begins with the visit of the English ship *Olive Blossom* in 1605, when the crew, finding the island uninhabited, took possession of it in King James's name. In spite of the keen and bitter rivalry of the imperial powers in the

West Indies, with the frequent loss and recapture of islands by one party or another, Barbados, from that day to this, has never changed its master.

After some dispute between the Earl of Marlborough and the Earl of Carlisle as to which of them the King had granted the island to—he seems to have issued overlapping patents—an agreement was reached, and the first settlers began to arrive in 1625. Three years later Charles Wolferstone, a native of Bermuda, was appointed governor. Accompanied by sixty-four settlers, he dropped anchor in Carlisle Bay, and on its shores founded Bridgetown, which is still the capital of the colony.

Carlisle Bay lies on the south-west coast of Barbados. It is the island's only harbour, and though a sheltered haven, only light draught vessels can make use of it. Bridgetown itself is a pleasant place of about 15,000 inhabitants. Its principal features are the Cathedral of St. Michael's, a Nelson monument in its appropriate Trafalgar Square, a fine military parade, and the Governor's handsome residence of Pilgrim, about a mile outside the town. Perhaps the most interesting sight in the capital is the Bridgetown market. The people are proud of it. It is certainly extremely colourful and attractive. The stalls of fruit, fish and flowers are staffed by Negresses remarkable for their shiny black skins, their flashing white teeth, and their bright, gay dresses. It will surprise the visitor from England to hear them speak with a strong American accent, but they will accept his money as readily as the dollar as they enter with him into good-natured bargaining.

During the Civil War Barbados received many Royalist refugees and put up a stout resistance against Cromwell's men under Lord Willoughby, who at the

time held a lease of the island. But the Cromwellians won, and Willoughby was banished. With the Restoration, Barbados was taken over by the Crown. Those who by hard work had made their estates into valuable properties were allowed to keep them, but there was a duty of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on their exported produce to be paid over to the owners in law. These estates were worked by slave labour, and the Negro population had reached 50,000 by the end of the 17th century.

During the squabbles of the 18th century, Barbados suffered like the rest of the West Indies, though it was not actually captured. To ease its economic distress, a portion of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent export duty was returned to it. The American War of Independence cut off the supply of provisions, which had come from the colonies on the mainland, and relief had to be sent hurriedly from home. In the Napolconic Wars Barbados had a narrow escape from falling. The French attacked it, but Admiral Cochrane and his ships arrived in the nick of time and saved it. It was never in danger again.

There have been queer turns of fortune since. The trade of the colony was virtually wiped out by American privateering in the war of 1812. The abolition of slavery was negotiated without serious incident, for the slaves merely continued to work for the same masters while drawing wages and appreciating their new status. This success and the final repeal of the export duty four years later (1838) ushered in a time of great prosperity for Barbados. It depended chiefly on sugar, which was introduced in the 17th century and has always been, and still is, the staple industry of the colony. Its success was due to the suitability of the soil, the supply of cheap labour, and the readiness always to introduce the latest scientific methods of

cultivation. To-day sugar is well supported by cotton, while rum, molasses, and building lime are other profitable lines.

Barbados is, and prefers to be, quite on its own. There was a proposal some sixty years ago to federate with the Windward Islands, about 100 miles away. The proposal produced serious riots with loss of life and property, and it was then decided that a separate existence was by all evidences desirable. The colony is proud of having enjoyed representative institutions for three centuries; the existing House of Assembly of 24 members is elected annually by the people.

Barbados is healthy and recommended especially for those suffering with chest complaints. There is a dry, cold season extending from December to the end of May. What would be overpowering tropical heat is tempered by the north-east trade-winds, cool, invigorating breezes, which blow for eight months of the year. There is no malaria, and the only common diseases are some leprosy among the natives and a dropsy which has come to be known as "Barbados leg."

TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

The great arc of the West Indies is completed at its southern end with the islands of Trinidad and Tobago. Trinidad is only seven miles from the South American coastline at the nearest point in Venezuela. Tobago is on the ocean side of Trinidad and twenty-one miles north-west of it. The two islands together form a British colony with a population of 450,000, of which about 27,500 live in the smaller Tobago. They are a motley crowd. The upper classes are of European stock, British, French and Spanish; about one-third of

the grand total are East Indians; most of the remainder are Negroes, some pure-blooded and some half-caste, and the balance is made up of Chinese. Just as the nationalities are mixed, so are the languages. In the towns it is English that is chiefly spoken. On the cocoa plantations one hears a kind of French patois; and in some districts Spanish persists, to remind one of the original owners.

The colony is administered by a Governor assisted by an Executive Council and a Legislative Council of twelve official and thirteen unofficial members. Of these thirteen, seven are elected by the votes of the people, the rest being nominated by the Crown. The measure of representative government was granted on the recommendation of the Hon. Edward Wood, now Lord Halifax, who as Under-Secretary of the Colonies included Trinidad and Tobago in his comprehensive tour of the West Indies in 1921-2.

The history of the two islands resembles to a large extent that of other parts of the West Indies. They were both discovered by Columbus in 1498, when "Assumption" was chosen as Tobago's name. This was discarded in favour of the present one, which is properly written Tobaco, and presumably has a connection with the popular weed. Trinidad, named in honour of the Trinity, was colonised by the Spaniards in 1588, but their hold on the island was a somewhat uneasy one. The capital at that time, San José de Oruna, was sacked by Raleigh in 1595; yet the Spaniards managed to hang on to their colony. They remained in possession until 1797, when Trinidad surrendered to a British force from Martinique commanded by General Abercromby. Final cession of the island came by the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

Tobago has had many masters. After its discovery by Spain, the British took formal possession in the time of Elizabeth. But occupation was not effective, and the island passed to the Dutch. From them it came into French hands, and eventually fell to Britain at the end of the Napoleonic Wars. From 1814 to 1889 it was administered with the Windward Islands, but in the latter year began a more satisfactory association with Trinidad.

Trinidad is a large island, roughly the size and shape of Essex. It is essentially tropical, and has all the advantages and some of the disadvantages of the climate of the tropics. There is all the wonderful profligacy of Nature in the colour, scent and profusion of tree and flower. The birds are remarkable for the brilliance of their plumage; and one of Trinidad's sobriquets is "the isle of the humming-bird." The regularity of the wet and dry seasons—the wet, from May to January, has an Indian summer in October—corresponds to other lands lying near the Equator.

Trinidad is less rugged than most of the West Indies. The palm-fringed beaches along the Caribbean Sea are continued inland by a rolling and not highly elevated landscape. There are mountains in the north, which reach a height of 3,100 feet in Tucuche Peak, but the surface generally is level. Nevertheless, the island has its scenic wonders, and there could hardly be a more beautiful sight than the Maracas Falls, where the river leaps into a valley over a wall of sheer rock more than 300 feet high.

The most remarkable of Trinidad's natural phenomena, however, is undoubtedly the Asphalt lake. This is a circular lake of pitch, three miles round and 114 acres in extent. The pitch is forced up in masses by

energies from underground. Near the centre it always remains soft, and right in the middle can be seen bubbling up in a liquid state. If you step on the pitch in hot weather, you cannot help but leave your foot-prints behind you. You will find the odour anything but pleasant. The whole soil surrounding the lake is charged with asphalt, but almost anything will grow in it. The Lake is one of the island's most valuable assets. A company has the working of it, extracting the pitch which it exports to the United States, at the same time paying a royalty to the Colonial Government.

Tobago, which is only 116 square miles in area, differs from its big brother and consists mostly of a single mountain mass of volcanic origin, which reaches nearly 2,000 feet at its loftiest point. The heights are clothed with a thick garment of trees. The tropical climate, with its rainy season from June to December including a September break, is one of the most pleasant to be found in the West Indies. The colony is just off the path of the hurricane.

In Port of Spain Trinidad has a capital which one may safely describe as one of the finest towns in the West Indian Islands. Charles Kingsley paid tribute to its natural beauties when he called its avenues of Royal Palms, "The glory of the West Indies." It is not only its tropical adornments that make Port of Spain so attractive. The buildings are fine and imposing; the streets are well laid out and nicely shaded, the gardens are well kept, and the modern conveniences of electricity, water, telephone, and tram service make the city thoroughly comfortable and up-to-date. The harbour is safe and sheltered, but the shallowness of the water prevents large ships from mooring at the quay-side. The port is busy, for besides handling most of the trade of

the colony, it receives much of the commerce from the Orinoco district of Venezuela. There are about 80,000 inhabitants in Port of Spain. It is by far the largest town of the colony, the next being San Fernando, a place of 16,000 people.

Tobago's capital is Scarborough, a little town of 1,350. It stands at the foot of a small hill, which contains the interesting old Fort St. George. Roxborough and Plymouth are the only other two towns in Tobago. There is a good deal worth seeing in the island. The naturalist will be charmed with the birds and butterflies; the lover of scenery will visit the Hope Falls, the Robinson Crusoe Caves, and the many spots where enchanting vistas of sea and sky and riotous vegetation may be obtained.

Commercially and industrially Trinidad ranks second only to Jamaica among the British West Indies. In the decline which affected the islands generally during the 19th century, she suffered less than many of them because her eggs were not all in one basket. Her resources were so varied that a loss in one direction was largely counter-balanced by gains in another. Up to 1933 cocoa enjoyed fifty years of unbroken prosperity. From the rich and fertile soil come also sugar, molasses, rum, limes, coco-nuts, and fruits of various kinds; and from her woods come many species of valuable timbers; from borings into her depths flow gushing streams of oil, worked by a number of companies, which have made the colony the largest oil-producer in the Empire. But the great opportunities of the island have not even yet been properly exploited, and Britain can do greater things with Trinidad than she has yet attempted and raise the standard of life for her people.

Tobago is relying principally on her rubber, cotton

and tobacco. She has also valuable hardwoods in her forests, and the spice, pimento, growing like a weed. She is laying herself out, too, to cater for visitors, who are coming in increasing numbers from England and the United States, enticed by her delightful climate and the attractions she has to offer.

The colony includes also a number of small islands. On one of them, named Chacachari, is a leper settlement, to whose welfare a resident chaplain devotes himself.

BRITISH HONDURAS

Isolated from the rest of the Empire, British Honduras, Britain's foothold on the American Isthmus, has had a curious history. The earliest English settlement there seems to have been made about 1638, by wood-cutters from Jamaica, from which it is some 700 miles distant. These men had, no doubt, been buccaneers, and their object apparently was to establish themselves in complete independence, free from all government control and restrictions. The great obstacle to their ambition was, of course, the might of Spain, who claimed a monopoly of all this portion of the New World. Many efforts were made by the Spaniards to dislodge them, but to approach their settlement from the sea was a difficult and hazardous undertaking, and the pioneers took full advantage of this favourable circumstance in their successful effort to maintain themselves.

Until 1786 the wood-cutters were almost entirely free to do as they liked. They elected their own magistrates and adopted certain rules and customs as binding on all. In 1756 the British Government sent out Admiral Burnaby to report upon the state of affairs. He

examined these rules and customs and codified them into a published work entitled "Burnaby's Laws." This was recognised by the Crown and accepted by the pioneers as their legal code.

But Spain would not leave the wood-cutters alone. Probably they were not very good neighbours and annoyed the Spanish on the landward sides of them. Britain attempted to reach an agreement with Spain to leave the settlers unmolested, but it is probable that the terms were not kept by either side. In any case, in 1779 Spain delivered a fierce onslaught on the settlement, then known as Belize—this is still the name of the capital of British Honduras—and carried off the inhabitants to Yucatan in the north. Many of the captives died, but some escaped to Jamaica, and after four years, nothing daunted, returned once more to their colony.

Britain now sent out a Superintendent, who tried to come to terms with the Spaniards on territorial questions. But the right of a British colony to exist in Honduras could not be admitted by Spain. Belize was officially described by Britain as "a settlement for certain purposes under the protection of His Majesty." Spain made a final effort to dislodge the wood-cutters during the Napoleonic Wars, but it was an utter failure; and when Central America became independent of Madrid, Britain made fresh treaties with Mexico and the new neighbours.

Representative institutions were in force while the position was still more or less unofficial, but in 1862 a colony was declared under the name of British Honduras. At first it was subordinated to Jamaica, but became an independent unit in 1884. Representative institutions were abolished many years ago, and a crown colony system of government is now in existence.

British Honduras is a little larger than Wales. It has as its neighbours on north, west and south, Mexico (Yucatan) and Guatemala. The 60,000 inhabitants include Negroes, descendants of the slaves, aboriginal Indians, representatives of the Caribs deported from St. Vincent, and a white population of mixed English, Scottish, German and Spanish antecedents.

The forests it was that first attracted the settlers to Belize, and it is the products of the forests in the shape of dyewoods and cabinet woods which form the staple industry of British Honduras to-day. Mahogany chiefly, but also cedar, logwood and other timbers support the colony as they have supported it for 200 years. The coloured labourers have no rivals as woodmen anywhere. Subsidiary industries have been launched, however, notably chicle, the basis of chewing-gum, which is bled from the sapodilla tree. Bananas grow particularly well in some localities, and a very high standard is reached in the grape-fruit. Cocoa actually grows wild in the forest lands and has a delicious flavour that the cultivated plant cannot capture.

Belize, the capital and principal seaport, is situated on both banks of the river of the same name, which is derived from the French word "balise," meaning "a beacon." This is, no doubt, an echo of the old free-booter days. The town has about 17,000 inhabitants and is built for the most part of wood, the houses having high roofs and wide verandahs and being well shaded by palms. The land near the sea is low and boggy, and the mangrove swamps, which surround Belize, have often been the cause of serious epidemics. With the advance of medical science, however, conditions are greatly improved. In the harbour lies the small island of St. George's Cay, which has most interesting

historical associations. It was the clever use made of this island by the settlers that enabled them to defeat the great Spanish attack of 1798.

The climate of British Honduras is damp and warm, but the heat is tempered by the sea breezes, and the colony is not too unhealthy. There is a dry season from mid-February to the middle of May. Unfortunately, the land suffers from the hurricane. In September, 1931, there was a disaster of the first magnitude, when a terrific hurricane swept over the colony, devastating the capital and causing a thousand deaths. The Mother Country came to the assistance of the distressed community, and with the same British doggedness which has enabled people of our race to hang on in face of all dangers and hardships, the losses have been made good, and once again British Honduras is marching forward.

BRITISH GUIANA

The land of river and forest, now known as British Guiana, lies in the north of South America, in that part of the world which has proved in the past an irresistible attraction for adventurers in search of mythical El Dorado, the fabled city of gold. Columbus sighted the country in 1498, the year of his discovery of Trinidad. Next year came the famous Amerigo Vespucci; and as the tales of El Dorado spread through the Old World, Dutch, French and English sea-captains, including our own Sir Walter Raleigh, came sailing down, eager to win the glittering prize that was believed to be waiting for those bold and enterprising enough to take it.

El Dorado proved an elusive dream, but in the north-

east of South America to-day the work of those courageous pioneers is represented by three thriving colonies, French, Dutch and British Guiana, a source of wealth and strength to their respective mother countries. What exactly is the meaning of the word "Guiana," used for this corner of the continent, is not quite clear, but generally it is thought to be derived from the name of the Indian people who originally occupied it.

The part of the country with which we are now concerned is that styled British Guiana. The name has only been in use for a little over a hundred years. Before 1831, there were three separate colonies in the territory, christened after the three great rivers which served them, Berbice, Essequibo and Demerara. In that year consolidation took place, and Sir Benjamin D'Urban, famous for his great rule at the Cape of Good Hope, became governor.

The people who started colonising in British Guiana in earnest were the Dutch. It was fitting that it should be so. The coastlands lie below the level of the sea, and an extensive system of empoldering, with dykes to keep the sea out and trenches to drain the land, was necessary before development could take place. Dutchmen, with their own country below sea-level, were obviously the most competent to undertake this work, and their experience has stood the colony in good stead. The land is now intersected with canals, which Dutch experts constructed, and their maintenance is a heavy, but necessary, charge on the colony.

Dutchmen are believed to have gone to Guiana first in 1598. By 1613 they had a few settlements on the coast by the Essequibo and Demerara rivers. They were challenged by English and French pioneers, the English gaining a footing at Surinam (now Dutch

Guiana) in 1652, and the French establishing themselves at Cayenne of pepper fame. Under the Treaty of Breda, however, the English withdrew from South America in consideration for Holland's cession of New York.

By 1674, seven years after Breda, the Dutch were colonising all the territory now comprising British and Dutch Guiana. The settlements were distinct and independent, that of Essequibo being the property of the Dutch West India Company.

This Company failed, and a new one was formed, which received Guiana from the States General in 1682. The new owners of the territory immediately disposed of two-thirds of their property, one-third being sold to the City of Amsterdam and one-third to Cornelius van Aerssens, Lord of Sommelsdijk. The new partners incorporated themselves as Lords of Surinam and Sommelsdijk, and Sommelsdijk became governor. And a very excellent governor he made, too. He dealt effectively with the Indians and protected his colonists from all danger from that quarter. He built fortifications and disciplined his own troops. He was responsible for much of the reclamation work, without which Guiana could not have prospered agriculturally. He built up a lucrative trade in black slaves, in which he acted no worse than the other colonial masters of the time. But in spite of all this splendid work, he was assassinated by his own mutinous soldiers, who nursed grievances of their own against him.

Sommelsdijk's share of Guiana was bought after his death by Amsterdam. In 1732 Berbice placed itself under the States-General and was given a constitution of its own. Demerara, which had been more or less a dependency of Essequibo, was recognised as a separate

colony in 1773. In 1781, however, the three colonies were seized by British privateers and placed by Admiral Rodney under the administration of Barbados. In the next few decades, they changed hands frequently. The French, then Holland's allies, captured them in 1782 and restored them to their original owners in 1783. Thirteen years later the British took possession for the second time, but Holland recovered them once more by the Peace of Amiens, 1802. The next year, though, the British were back again, this time for good, for Berbice, Essequibo and Demerara were formally ceded in 1814.

Although there are great reserves of timber in the vast forests, diamonds are known to exist, and gold is worked, these resources will not become widely available until there is a considerable extension of road and rail facilities. The immense potentialities of the interior of British Guiana have hardly begun to be exploited. Romance and adventure lurk in the wild and little known territories away from the coast for those with the enterprise and opportunity to seek them. At present the colony continues to depend, as it has depended from early days, on the plantations bordering the sea and along the banks of the great rivers. The great staple product is the sugar-cane, and the very word "Demerara" is a synonym for sugar in many people's minds. Coffee, rice and other crops are grown, and there is room in plenty for a large increase in plantations, particularly of rice, when these become economically possible.

Until about a hundred years ago the sugar plantations were worked with slave labour. In no colony was Britain's enlightened, humane and advanced policy of emancipation attended with such sacrifices. As the date of their promised freedom drew near, the Negroes

became restive and mutinous, and the colonial rulers had great trouble with them. Abolition itself brought the whole colony to the brink of ruin. It was only by attracting new labourers, mostly Portuguese and East Indians, that the sugar planters were kept in business. Even so, they had a tremendous battle for survival. Labour troubles and the fierce competition of beet-sugar nearly finished them, but they rode out a succession of crises and have now sailed into calmer, but by no means quiescent, waters.

British Guiana has had periods of recurring anxiety as to the intentions of her big neighbours, Venezuela to the west and Brazil to the south. Disputes about boundaries have more than once developed into an acute situation. Recourse to arms, however, was in each case avoided, and the questions were finally and sensibly settled by arbitration.

The administration of British Guiana has followed a rather different course to that of other British colonies. There used to be what was called a Court of Policy, which performed the duties of an executive council. In addition there was a Combined Court, which consisted of the members of the Court of Policy with the additions of a few financial experts who were elected by the voters. Only the Combined Court could impose taxation. These courts have recently been superseded by a Legislative Council of twenty-nine non-elected members, presided over by the Governor.

British Guiana's capital is Georgetown at the mouth of the Demerara River. It was founded by the Dutch, who called it Starbroek. Over 67,000 of the colony's 337,000 live in the capital, which for its modernity compares favourably with other cities in South America. All the conveniences of telephone, trams, buses, and

steamer transport are enjoyed, and the beauties of its tropical setting include, in Greenwich Park, some of the finest botanical gardens in the continent. One of the most popular promenades in the city is the sea wall; and the old name of Starbroek is used for the market, which is haunted by collectors of curios. Of the other towns in the colony, New Amsterdam on the Berbice River is important commercially and historically.

It is hot in British Guiana. Before science had won its battle with the mosquito, and sanitation had replaced the old, ignorant methods, tropical diseases took their toll. Nowadays, however, the climate need not prove unhealthy. There is a sharp division of the seasons into wet and dry. There are two dry spells: from the middle of February to the end of April, and from mid-August to late November. The colony is sufficiently far south to miss the hurricanes of the West Indies, and even high winds are rare. The visitor, however, would be well advised to avoid August and September in British Guiana, for in those months the trade-winds cease, leaving the heat oppressive.

British Guiana is a land of rivers. Six great streams flow into the Atlantic, three of which, Berbice, Essequibo and Demerara have given their names, first to the old original Dutch settlements, and now to the county divisions of the British colony. There are some marvellous waterfalls on the Guiana rivers. One of the finest is the Kaieteur fall on the Potaro, which makes a dizzy leap of 822 feet. New falls are constantly being discovered. Another of 500 feet on the Ipohe river was seen for the first time in 1934 and given the name of Marina. Bigger falls still have been spotted from the air.

Some of the mountains of the interior are giants.

Mount Roraima on the Venezuela border is little short of 10,000 feet. It is, however, the immense tracts of forest that are holding so closely the still unrevealed secrets of British Guiana. In these remote and inaccessible regions thousands of Carib and Arawak Indians still live in a primitive state, supporting themselves by hunting and fishing. Here also roam the puma, jaguar, tapir and tiger-cat. In the patches of swampy pampas are reptiles of many kinds; and amid the thick, tangled, profligate vegetation dwell a strange assortment of gaily-plumaged birds.

In this great colony of 90,000 square miles there are many treasures and many surprises still awaiting the venturesome spirits among our people.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS

Before the Panama Canal was built, when ships going from the eastern seaboard of the Americas to the western had to take the long route via Cape Horn, the Falkland Islands, Britain's outpost in the South Atlantic, was a more importantly strategic point than it is to-day. There is no other group of islands of any consequence in this part of the world. They are situated about 300 miles east of the Straits of Magellan, and consist for the most part of two islands, East Falkland and West Falkland, separated by Falkland Sound, which is only two and a half miles across at the narrowest point.

The islands have not, it must be admitted, a very cheerful appearance. Their general colouring is a rather faded brown, but what would be a depressing effect is relieved by the grandeur of certain of the hills and promontories. Mount Adam on West Falkland

exceeds 2,300 feet. An unusual feature of the Falklands are the Stone Runs. These are masses of irregular blocks of quartzite, varying in length from two feet to twenty feet, which pile up and choke the valleys. They are supposed to be the work of ancient glaciers.

There are about 2,500 people on the Falkland Islands. No signs exist of any aboriginal inhabitants, and the animals are very few. Wild life is represented by many species of sea-birds, usually remarkably tame, and colonies of penguins. Most of the people live in East Falkland, where the little capital of Stanley is situated at the head of Port William, one of the many good harbours of which the islands can boast. This, some 1,200 souls, is the only settlement of importance, and was founded in 1844. The houses are built mostly of wood and iron, but a bright touch of colour is given by the painted roofs and by the masses of fuchsias and pelargoniums which the Islanders train over their glazed porches. West Falkland has no towns, and indeed, the island was uninhabited before 1867.

The Falklands consist chiefly of boglands, but these are found suitable for sheep, which provide the people with their main occupation. Such is the explanation of the high percentage of Scottish shepherds among the islanders. The whole atmosphere is reminiscent of the Hebrides, and Government House at Stanley might be a Shetland manse. There are over 600,000 sheep in the colony, and the wool output averages some four million pounds per annum. Wool, tallow, hides, and sheepskin are the chief items of export.

The whaling industry of the colony yields pride of place to no other in the world, but this is not concentrated so much on the Falkland Islands themselves as on their dependencies, South Georgia and the South

Shetlands. Sealing is another important branch, and the export of seal oil is considerable. The group was not able to be self-supporting for some considerable time, and a grant-in-aid was allowed by the British Parliament. But as the islanders found their feet, this was gradually decreased until, in 1885, the revenue exceeded the expenditure. Since that day there has been a splendid story to tell. Not only have the Islands paid their way, but they have refunded all loans from the British Treasury and created a satisfactory reserve fund into the bargain.

This lonely group of islands, 8,000 miles from England, was visited by John Davis in 1592 and by Sir Richard Hawkins two years later. The Dutchman, Sebald de Wert, arrived in 1598 and christened them the Sebald Islands after himself. It was the Englishman, Captain Strong, who sailed between the two main islands in 1690 and named the passage Falkland Sound.

The first to make a settlement were the French. Colonists under de Bougainville established themselves at Port Louis in Berkeley Sound in 1764. France subsequently resigned her claim in favour of Spain, but in 1765 Commodore Byron formed a settlement at Port Egremont in the little island of Saunders, and claimed the group for Britain by right of prior discovery. Both Spanish and British tried for a time to ignore each other's presence, but this not being very convincingly done, the next thing was they nearly came to blows. Spain actually gave way, but Britain made little use of her advantage, and the Falklands were for long utterly neglected and left with scarcely an inhabitant.

In 1820 the young republic of Buenos Aires stepped in and claimed the Falklands on the ground that Britain

had taken no steps whatever to make use of them. But unfortunately for the men from the Argentine, their country fell foul of the United States, whose forces destroyed the Falkland community. Anxious about American intentions, Britain stepped in once more, persuaded the men of Buenos Aires to return to the mainland, and made the group the most southerly outpost of the British Empire, placing its administration under the Board of Admiralty. The crown colony system of government was introduced in 1833.

Undoubtedly the most exciting chapter in the history of the Falkland Islands occurred during the Great War. The German Pacific Squadron, led by Admiral von Spee, had caught the British ships in South American waters at a disadvantage, and inflicted a severe defeat upon them off Coronel, on the Chilian coast. Elated by this success, the Germans felt themselves strongly enough placed for an attack on the Falkland Islands, whose capture would give them a base, a harbour, a wireless station, and supplies of coal. But the defeat at Coronel had stirred the British Admiralty to vigorous action, and Lord Fisher, First Sea Lord, had despatched with all speed powerful battle-cruisers to the South Atlantic. These were coaling at Port Stanley when the German fleet arrived for its attack. Von Spee and his men were astounded to find the great warships already in harbour, and realising they had walked into a trap, turned and made a bolt for it. But on this occasion the tables were turned. Neither in speed nor in weight of armament were the Germans a match for the British ships, ably handled by Admiral Sturdee. The great battle-cruisers gave chase, and in the fight which ensued, von Spee's squadron was annihilated. Thus were Britain's prestige and command of the seas restored in a scrap that has

CHAPTER THREE

WEST AFRICA

BRTAIN'S West African possessions make an imposing array. Travelling down the Guinea Coast, we come in turn upon Gambia; Sierra Leone; the Gold Coast, with which are associated Ashanti, the Northern Territories, and the mandated territory of British Togoland; and Nigeria, with which is administered Britain's part of the ex-German colony of Cameroon. For the benefit of those for whom figures have a message, it may be stated that the total area of British West Africa is about 600,000 square miles—equal to Britain, France, Germany and Italy put together. The population, consisting almost entirely of Africans, approximates 30,000,000.

At the outset let us admit the haphazard fashion in which Britain acquired this African empire. It was not the fruit of aggressive, imperialistic war. Indeed, the British Government in its official capacity had very little to do with its founding. It was, in truth, rather opposed to the acquisition of African colonies. It disliked new commitments and the extension of the country's responsibilities, and sought to discourage the enterprising pioneers whose courage and energy were bringing vast new territories beneath the flag.

The English took an interest in West Africa in the first place for one reason only: trade. It must be sorrowfully admitted that the most lucrative part of that

trade was the traffic in Negro slaves. The New World was desperately in need of labourers and willing to pay handsomely for them; and it was not only British merchants, but men of all the great European powers, who satisfied this need. But there were other articles of commerce, too, to enrich the merchants, who established trading-posts all along the Guinea Coast and built forts to protect them.

When the various settlements made by the trading companies were taken over by the Crown for strategic, financial, and other good reasons, they became bases from which Britain fought the evil of slavery, determined, now the national conscience was aroused, to shrink from no sacrifice until the inhuman traffic was suppressed. It cost her £20,000,000 in hard cash to compensate the slave-owners, and it cost her for a time also the prosperity of the territories which the pioneers had opened up.

The overseas slave trade was abolished in 1807, and by 1821 the settlements hitherto run by the trading companies were placed under the Colonial Office. But the Government showed no enthusiasm for their job. They were against a bold, forward policy, and in the Gold Coast actually favoured withdrawal and an abandonment of the forts. It was the tenacity of the merchants, who refused to evacuate, which preserved the colony until a change of mood came about in official circles.

[The lukewarm and vacillating policy of the British Government gravely handicapped the commercial interests in West Africa. Britain, indeed, proved so unimperialistic that she allowed France and Germany to establish their authority over territories she could have had for the asking. Eventually, the more energetic

methods of her colonial rivals forced her to adopt a stronger policy; and when the great Berlin Conference of 1884-85 met to lay down the rules for the partition of Africa among the powers of Europe, her claim to Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos and Oil Rivers, the two last-named now included in Nigeria, was acknowledged. |

| In the period following the Berlin Conference, Britain was far less aggressive and acquisitive than her competitors. She was forced in self-defence to safeguard her colonies by bringing the surrounding territory under her protection. Thus we find to-day that in each of the British West African dependencies there is an area which is the colony proper, the original settlement made by the traders, and, surrounding it, a much larger protectorate, where the old tribal organisations are maintained and the native chiefs rule under British guidance. |

The main British purpose in West Africa is trade—the exchange of the raw materials and primary products of each territory for the manufactured goods imported from Britain and elsewhere. Through trade channels the benefits of civilisation are brought to the native peoples. There is no question here of an outlet for surplus home population or the founding of white colonies. The climatic conditions make such a policy impossible. The hot, damp, tropical atmosphere determines West Africa as a Negro's country. Although medical science has advanced sufficiently nowadays to keep the white administrators from the early grave that most of them used to find, it is not considered advisable to have more British-born people in the colonies than is absolutely necessary for the purposes of government and commerce.

Britain has a mission in West Africa. She has saved the Africans from a hideous form of exploitation by outsiders, and she is surely saving them from savagery and barbarities practised by them upon each other. Progress during the last hundred years has been remarkable; and she has repaid herself for her trouble through trading opportunities, and gained handsomely in power and prestige.

GAMBIA

Rivers have played an important part in the history of exploration. They provide a highway into an unknown land and offer the best opportunities for settlement. Once a footing has been established, the river becomes the channel of trade between the colonisers and the native peoples.

It was at the mouth of one of these great rivers, the Gambia, that Englishmen made their earliest contact with the vast region of West Africa. The Gambia rises at a point 300 miles from the sea as the crow flies, but so winding is its course that its actual length exceeds 1,000 miles. It descends from the hilly region of the interior by the Barraconda rapids, and the remaining distance to its mouth, some 350 miles, is affected by the tides and is always navigable to boats drawing up to six feet of water. For a couple of hundred miles below the falls the river is bordered by park-like country consisting of low hills. Then, after McCarthy's Island is passed, the Gambia broadens out to 800 yards and is flanked by steep and thickly-wooded banks. After fifty miles these give place to mangrove swamps, which continue to the river mouth. The bar can be crossed by ocean-going vessels at all tides; and it is not difficult to understand

how the whole life and prosperity of Britain's Gambia colony depend upon the waterway.

The Gambia was discovered, so far as Europe was concerned, by the Portuguese, in 1447. But the country had been important long before that, as shown by the ancient remains, something like our Druidical relics at Stonehenge, which are found in many places. We do not know who the builders of these circles and pillars were, but they are very old and held in much reverence by the present Moslem inhabitants, who comprise four-fifths of the natives.

The Portuguese made no settlement on the Gambia, but for a time they carried on a most lucrative trade with the Africans. In the early days the Negroes used to sail down the great waterway with handfuls of gold dust which they exchanged for the new and exciting things which the Europeans brought them. This trade declined, but a new industry arose when the New World began to demand slaves for the plantations.

Englishmen commenced to take an interest in Gambia as long ago as 1588, the year of the Spanish Armada. Certain Portuguese then living in England suggested to a group of English merchants that they should form a company to trade with West Africa. Queen Elizabeth, always an enterprising sovereign, granted the company a charter with a monopoly of trading facilities in this region for ten years.

No settlement resulted from this venture, and James I granted a charter to another company, calling itself, "The Company of Adventurers of London trading with Africa," of whom Sir Robert Rich, later Earl of Warwick, was the moving spirit. Besides trade with Gambia and the Gold Coast, the Company meant to try and open up relations with Timbuctoo. It was

thought this famous city on the edge of the Sahara could be reached by way of the Gambia, and George Thompson, in his ship the *Catherine*, set out to make the trip. It was a disastrous journey. After getting as far as the Portuguese trading-post of Kassan, he had to leave the *Catherine* behind and push on in small boats with a few followers. When he had disappeared up river, half-castes seized his vessel and murdered his crew. He himself was killed by natives.

The English Company built a fort at the Gambia's mouth to protect their post; and one of their agents, Richard Jobson, ascended the river to Barraconda and beyond. The old fort was superseded by a new one, situated some 20 miles upstream, and named Fort James, after King James II. The old Company, also, was superseded by the newly created Royal African Company, which, in 1723, sent out Captain Stibbs to verify a report of a country full of gold, which had been brought back some years before by a Dutch explorer. Stibbs found no gold, but he did find very vigorous rivals in the French, who had replaced the Portuguese as England's jealous trading competitors.

After many years of dispute and difficulty, the Treaty of Versailles of 1783 recognised the Gambia river in its lower reaches as a British trading preserve, France compensating herself with gains in Senegal and other parts of West Africa. Britain then began to build up her colony by purchasing small territories from native kings. To these the important St. Mary's Island was added in 1806; McCarthy's Isle was bought in 1823; the Ceded Mile was granted by the native King of Barra in 1826; and between 1840 and 1850 the portion known as British Kombo was acquired. These districts form what is now known as the colony proper and com-

prise an area of only about seventy square miles. The colony is to be distinguished from the Protectorate, which runs about 200 miles up-stream and includes a stretch of territory measuring six miles wide on each bank of the river. The main part of the colony is the Island of St. Mary, which is four square miles in area and has about 14,500 inhabitants. The population of the Protectorate is 185,000.

The year 1807 was an important one in the history of Gambia, as of all the West African settlements. In that year Britain put her foot down firmly on the overseas slave traffic. The step was followed by an economic crisis, since slaves were the Gambia's principal source of wealth. However, doing the right thing by the slaves was not to bring undeserved ruin on the colony. Other factors were at work. Britain was at war with Napoleon, and the British merchants, scattered through the large possessions of France in West Africa, left hostile territory and settled in Gambia, which began to assume more and more the character of a colony rather than a mere trading-post. There had been no political institutions in the district before this time, and it was now decided to bring Gambia under the administration of Sierra Leone.

Gambia remained associated with Sierra Leone for many years. When the Royal African Company was dissolved in 1822 and all its responsibilities and obligations taken over by the Crown, Gambia was annexed to the senior colony. It was created a colony on its own in 1843; and from 1866 to 1888 it was part of the West African Settlements. This last was an experiment in federation, which set up a common government for the British settlements on the Guinea Coast, Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast and Lagos. It proved

most unsatisfactory owing to the divergent needs of the component parts, and was discontinued. Gambia then attained a government of its own, which has proved the soundest arrangement.

Recent history has reflected the good political understanding now existing between Britain and France. British control of both banks of the Gambia up to the boundary of the colony of the French Soudan is established. Peace and contentment have come to the people of the Protectorate. At one time there was some trouble with slave-traders, but to-day even domestic slavery is a thing of the past.

A Crown Colony Government, with its seat at Bathurst on the Island of St. Mary, also administers the 4,000 square miles of territory on both banks of the Gambia under the protectorate system. A company of the Royal West African Frontier Force is stationed in the colony, and there is in addition a small police force. Bathurst was founded in 1816 and named after Lord Bathurst, then Colonial Secretary. The Island of St. Mary, on which the capital stands, is near the mouth of the Gambia and connected with the mainland by a bridge. The port of Bathurst is accessible to ocean steamers and takes the whole trade of the colony. The town stands only about a dozen feet above the river level. Its buildings of red sandstone face seawards, and its streets and market-place are shaded by avenues of bombax, the tropical silk-cotton tree, which sends out thick and wide-spreading branches.

The climate of Gambia is decidedly not good for Europeans during the rainy season from June to October, although it is an improvement on that of Sierra Leone. The dry months are better. The place is hot, the mean temperature being 77° F in the shade.

It is even hotter up river. From December to March the uncomfortable harmattan, a dry, dust-laden east wind, blows off and on. That Gambia is less unhealthy than other parts of West Africa is due to the more open character of much of the country, the smaller area of dense forest, and fewer swamps and marsh-lands.

The one great industry of Gambia to-day is the raising and export of ground-nuts. They account for 96 per cent. of the total export trade. The crop is sent almost wholly to Europe, where the oil is extracted. This oil is the main ingredient in the making of margarine and is also a substitute for olive oil. At one time Gambia, being in the middle of French territory, traded almost wholly with France and sent nearly all her ground-nuts to Marseilles. The World War, however, diverted large cargoes to Britain. The ground-nuts occupy almost the whole of the male population of the Protectorate for eight months of the year. They are planted in June after the early rains, and the crop is gathered in October or November. The industry attracts what is known as the Strange Farmer. This is the general name for the thousands of natives who come from a great distance to take part in the industry. They are housed, fed and given farms to cultivate. Half of what their produce fetches goes to the landlord to pay for their board and land rent: the other half is their own. After the harvest the Strange Farmer returns to his far country and may not take an interest in another ground-nut crop for many years.

Other industries include the raising of rice and a species of millet called kous for the feeding of the population. Some palm kernels are exported; and Gambia has taken advantage of its enormous number of bees to supply other countries with beeswax. The well-to-do

natives invest their capital in cattle, and benefit from an export trade in hides. But all these lines are subsidiary to the ground-nuts, which are sent down to Bathurst by river for shipment. The presence of the navigable Gambia, running through the long narrow country, has made the building of railways in this dependency unnecessary.

SIERRA LEONE

In 1462 the Portuguese explorer, Pedro de Sintra, came sailing along the Guinea Coast and sighted the high, rocky peninsula which the natives called Romarong, meaning the mountain. Pedro's name for it was Serra da Leona, the mountain of the lioness, which later became Sierra Leone, or Lion Mountain. It may have been either the roar of the surf or a similarity of the peninsula's outline to a lion's body that suggested the title to the navigator's mind.

For a time the Portuguese traded with Sierra Leone; and at the end of the 17th century the English seemed to have considered the opportunities worth the building of a fort. But this was abandoned, and the European merchants left the place to the pirate and the slave-trader. Sierra Leone's history as a colony had an original inception, and was due to motives entirely different to those which promoted any other settlement in the British Empire.

A Doctor Henry Smeathman, who had spent four years on the West African coast, was saddened by the lot of a number of destitute Negroes, who were then dragging out a pitiable existence in England. He proposed that these people, who consisted of runaway slaves and men discharged from the Army and Navy at the

end of the American War of Independence, should be given a refuge in the shape of a settlement of their own under British protection in their native country. He suggested Sierra Leone. His proposal was officially approved, and the cession of the peninsula was obtained for this purpose from the native chief who owned it. Four hundred Negroes and sixty white people, most of them women of bad character, were dispatched to the new asylum in 1787.

Excellent as the scheme was, this initial effort unfortunately failed. A few years later, however, the attempt was renewed. The Sierra Leone Company was formed and supervised arrangements. This time success crowned the enterprise. The settlement was founded and eventually called Freetown. Slaves who won their freedom in America and the West Indies crossed the Atlantic and made their homes in the new black colony. After a raid by the black King Jiminy in 1789, the French, in 1794, conceived it their duty to interfere with the experiment and attacked and plundered Freetown. The Governor at the time was Zachary Macaulay, father of the famous author. The settlement managed to weather this disaster, but the company was unable to cope with its many and increasing difficulties, and in 1807 transferred its rights to the Crown.

The same year saw the suppression of the slave traffic in West Africa. British warships thereafter patrolled the coast and intercepted many a vessel which was trying to run the blockade with a cargo of slaves illegally obtained. The Negroes rescued in such fashion were taken to Freetown and liberated. From this cause the population, which numbered under 2,000 when the Crown took over the administration, rapidly increased.

Development was impeded in the early days of Sierra

Leone by the frequent change of governors. The colony had seventeen rulers in twenty-two years. In 1814, however, Sir Charles McCarthy entered upon his term, which lasted for the unusual period of ten years, and might have lasted longer, had not the able administrator lost his life in defending the Gold Coast against the Ashanti. Much was done for agriculture and trade under McCarthy's régime, and every effort was made to put the liberated slave on his feet. The slave-raiders were carefully watched, and illicit slave-trading brought practically to an end.

In 1866 Freetown became the seat of government for the West African Settlements. This attempt at federation, in which Sierra Leone, Gambia, the Gold Coast, and Lagos were each to have its own Legislative Council as well as a general administration, was not found satisfactory in practice. In 1874 the Gold Coast and Lagos were detached, and Gambia separated in 1888. But if the scheme itself was proved unwise, the choice of Freetown as the federal capital was certainly a good one. The harbour is easily the finest on the West Coast of Africa and is still an important imperial coaling station conveniently situated half-way between England and Cape Town. Freetown is also the General Headquarters of His Majesty's forces in West Africa, as well as the headquarters of the Royal West African Frontier Force. There are 62,500 inhabitants of the capital to-day, descendants of the freed slaves drawn from almost every Negro tribe. The babble of tongues in Freetown's streets is most disturbing to the stranger, who is quite able to believe that at least sixty languages are spoken within the borders of the city. The exact position of the capital is some five miles up river from the Atlantic, on the north side of the peninsula, where

it is enclosed by a ring of wooded hills. This up-to-date town, with its good streets, efficient lighting, water supply, and police force is connected with the interior by 300 miles of railway, the first railway ever to be built in British West Africa, supplemented to-day by newly constructed motor roads.

In 1893 a curious misadventure occurred which is known to history as the Waima incident. The hinterland had not then been divided into spheres of British and French influence, and when Moslem tribes ravaged the borders of Sierra Leone and French Guinea, both powers dispatched against them punitive columns, which were mostly composed of natives. Instead of punishing the Moslem raiders, the French and British forces, by accident, attacked each other at a place called Waima. Only the officers were white, so the mistake was easy enough to make. Both sides suffered heavily before the tragedy was discovered. As a result, steps were taken to avoid further conflicts and to protect both colonies against the native raiders. In the agreement which delineated the respective spheres, France got the best of the bargain, and took what would naturally be regarded as Sierra Leone's hinterland.

In 1896 a Protectorate was declared over the new sphere of influence allotted to Britain, which stretched east and north of the colony. At once the government set about the abolition of the slavery which existed in the new territory, but not until 1926 was domestic slavery finally wiped out. The freeing of the slaves was an unpopular step with the native chiefs, and there was trouble at first. This was dealt with; and as the Negroes came to appreciate how well off they were under British rule, matters began, and have continued, to run smoothly. Throughout the difficult years of the

Great War, the native peoples of Sierra Leone remained loyal. "Ancient and loyal" is the colony's own proud description of itself. To-day there are about 104,000 people in the colony proper, which measures roughly 4,000 square miles. Adding the Protectorate, the whole dependency is about the size of Ireland with a population of nearly two million. It is ruled by a Governor, who is also commander-in-chief, with a Legislative Council consisting of eleven official members, three unofficial members elected by manhood suffrage, and seven nominated unofficial members, of whom three are paramount chiefs of the Protectorate. The Protectorate itself is divided into two provinces, each under a Provincial Commissioner.

The Europeans in Sierra Leone number less than 500. The country was once known as "The White Man's Grave." Although it hardly deserves so dire a reputation to-day, it is certainly the most unhealthy place in the West African chain of colonies. It is hot, and in the wet season the rains are heavy. The dry period lasts from December to March, and then the coast is often whipped by terrific tornadoes. The dry harmattan blows from the Sahara, bringing clouds of fine dust which hang in the atmosphere. This unwelcome wind parches the skin and withers vegetation, but it has its compensations. Cool nights follow the baking day temperatures, and risk of fever is reduced. Science has made great strides in mitigating the dangers of a sojourn in Sierra Leone, and would make greater strides still if the natives could be persuaded to obey the sanitation laws. The colony is not recommended for casual visitors, for the climate still takes its toll, most severely, curiously enough, of white children and horses.

Until recently Sierra Leone was dependent for its prosperity on the export of palm kernels and palm oil,

products of the wild palm. This thriving industry was seriously affected by the competition of the cultivated oil palms on European plantations in the Far East. The colony would have been in serious case had it not been for the fortunate discovery of valuable mineral wealth, which quickly followed. Diamonds, gold, platinum and iron ore are now being exported, and Sierra Leone has taken second place to the Federated Malay States as the largest producer of iron ore in the Empire. The adjustment of what has hitherto been a purely agricultural community to one in which mining looks like being the chief industry of the future, will present difficult administrative and labour problems which will not easily be solved; and future developments will be watched with sympathetic interest.

THE GOLD COAST

(WITH ASHANTI, NORTHERN TERRITORIES, AND
TOGOLAND)

The block of British West African territories grouped under the general name of the Gold Coast consists of the colony proper, that is, the coastal region, 24,000 square miles in extent; Ashanti, a Protectorate of slightly larger dimensions, lying north of the colony; the Northern Territories, another Protectorate to the north of Ashanti, covering some 30,500 square miles; and British Togoland, part of the ex-German colony and a mandated territory, which measures about 13,000 square miles and adjoins the eastern frontiers of the other three territories. The whole adds up to the grand total of 92,000 square miles and has a population of 3,620,000, of whom as many as 1,800,000 live in the

colony proper. In this number there are only about 4,500 Europeans and Asiatics. The rest are Africans, and nearly all pagan Africans. There are, indeed, a few Moslems, and Christianity is making headway, but here is a part of the dark continent that from the religious aspect is still dark.

The climate largely accounts for the fewness of the white residents. It is hot and damp, though not so oppressive, perhaps, as other tropical countries in the same latitude. Much has been done to make conditions healthier, but the general nature of the country renders it impossible for the colony ever to become a favourite station with the British administrators. By far the greater part of the dependency is covered with primæval forest. The prodigal growth of the tall trees and close bush make it impossible over great distances to see the sky through the roof of boughs and leaves. Here and there the dense vegetation is intersected by swamps, which breed the mosquitoes that spread the fevers. This tangled country is a paradise for animals; and panthers, leopards, hyenas, with the chimpanzee and many kinds of monkeys, as well as pythons and cobras and other dangerous reptiles, roam it at will. The watery patches are the homes of giant hippopotami and crocodiles.

When one gets beyond Ashanti into the Northern Territories, better climatic conditions are encountered. The higher elevation, the smaller rainfall, and the more open character of the country decrease the risk of fever as well as its virulence.

Although the Gold Coast is surrounded on three sides by French possessions—on the west by the French Ivory Coast, on the north by the French Sudan, and on the east by French mandated Togoland—the troublous periods

through which the colony has passed have not been due to disputes with France. As British influence was extended beyond the narrow limits of the old trading forts, the opposition was encountered of the Ashanti, a warlike and powerful African nation, who claimed dominion over the Fanti, the natives of the coastal region. The issue between the British and the Ashanti had to be settled before peace and prosperity could be established on the Coast.

Although the Portuguese reached the Gold Coast in the 15th century, they were not, it seems, in this instance, the first Europeans on the scene. Merchants of Normandy apparently paid an earlier visit. But in 1481 the Portuguese founded Elmina and called it "the mouth of the mines," since they were successful in extracting the gold of the country and exporting it. Although Portugal enjoyed a monopoly of the trade until the Reformation, the lure of the gold drew English, French, Dutch, Swedes and Brandenburgers to the coast and gave it its obvious name. The English were there as early as 1553, when a cargo of gold was brought safely home.

During the first half of the 17th century, the Dutch made strenuous efforts to oust the Portuguese, and succeeded in doing so in 1642, when they agreed on their part to withdraw from Portugal's colony of Brazil in return for sole possession of the Gold Coast. But although they ousted Portugal politically, many traces of her occupation remained, and such words as "palaver," "fetish," and several others are reminders still of her early conquest.

The next phase in the history of this section of the Guinea Coast was the rivalry between Dutch and English. The Dutch strengthened Elmina and made it

their headquarters. The English constructed a fort at Kormantine about 1651, and then, some ten years later, built the important and historic Cape Coast Castle, which for two centuries protected their interests in the district. The Dutch managed to obtain confirmation of their possession by the Treaty of Breda, 1667, but thereafter they gradually lost ground before the English, who built a number of forts along the coast. With the charter granted to the Royal African Company by Charles II, the struggle between the European competitors became more severe. The prize was indeed worth fighting for, since it is estimated that the value of the gold then being exported annually exceeded £200,000. The merchants were so occupied in outdoing their rivals that they troubled very little indeed about the natives. In addition, they gave pirates a grand opportunity to ply their trade, of which the fullest advantage was taken.

The Royal African Company lost its monopoly as far as trade with England was concerned and gave way to another undertaking, the African Company of Merchants, which was constituted with parliamentary backing in 1750. During the next half century trade flourished as it had never done before. Unhappily, it was composed principally of the slave traffic. Conditions favoured expansion. America's demand for black labourers could not be satisfied, and the warlike Ashanti found it very profitable to sell natives of the tribes they had conquered to the slave-dealers. Probably 10,000 Negro slaves were leaving the Gold Coast every year at this period.

The traffic was not destined to last. In 1807 Britain suppressed it throughout her West African dominions. The edict put the African Company of Merchants out

of business, and their forts were taken over by the Crown. From this point Britain, having protected the natives from the horrible fate which had hung over them for two hundred years, began to take an interest in them beyond the purposes of trade. Her right to control the Fanti people living in the coast towns was recognised by the Ashanti, although they still claimed to exercise dominion over them themselves as a conquered tribe. However, Sir Charles McCarthy, the able governor of Sierra Leone, in 1824 persuaded the coastal natives to rise against their oppressors and throw off the hated yoke. The Fanti responded, and McCarthy led them in person. Unfortunately he led them into an ambush at a place called Essamako, and in the ensuing slaughter he himself was killed.

The evil effects of this success of the Ashanti was wiped out by a British victory over them two years later at Dodowah. It was decisive in freeing the native tribes living south of the river Prah from Ashanti domination. But the Home Government by now were sick of the continual disturbances and, disliking the idea of further commitments, came to the startling decision to evacuate the forts and withdraw from the Gold Coast. A howl of protest went up from the merchants, and a compromise was reached. Instead of abandoning the forts, the Government handed them over to a committee of merchants with a subsidy of £4,000 a year to help maintain them.

The responsibility was a big one for private individuals engaged in trade. But the Committee were fortunate in securing the services of George Maclean, a man with some military experience on the Guinea Coast and well qualified to act as their administrator. It was Maclean who really consolidated Britain's position

in the Gold Coast. He preferred peaceful means and made a treaty with the Ashanti in 1831, which brought all the native tribes south of the Prah under British protection, extended British influence northward, and opened up new trading possibilities with the interior. How Maclean was able to accomplish so much with so little behind him was explained by the comment of a native of the Fanti tribe, who said, "He settled things quietly with them, and the people also loved him."

Maclean's administration had proved so successful that the Colonial Office took fresh heart, and in 1843 reassumed control of the Gold Coast, retaining Maclean to direct native affairs. Agreements with African chiefs followed, in which Britain's right to punish criminal acts and suppress such odious practices as human sacrifice was recognised. Forts established on the coast by the Danes were purchased in 1850. In 1866 the Gold Coast entered the West African settlements, remaining more or less a dependency of Sierra Leone until 1874, when it and Lagos were separated from Freetown and made a colony together. The arrangement was not altogether satisfactory, and further separation followed in 1886.

In 1871 Britain bought the Dutch forts and territory and remained in sole possession of the whole colony. This purchase was to have far-reaching and surprising results. Britain's new position brought with it control of the Elmina tribe, who lived around Elmina and the Dutch posts. Now the Ashanti had been trying to re-establish their old ascendancy over the coastal natives, and owing to the British reluctance to take energetic measures against them, had achieved considerable success. If there had not been serious internal disputes amongst them, their success would have been greater.

The Dutch, primarily interested in trade, had not worried about the question of sovereignty. They had even paid rents to the Ashanti for their forts. Britain paid no rents and claimed jurisdiction over the territory. The Ashanti, therefore, felt they had a grievance and aggravated matters by taking and holding prisoner at their capital, Kumasi, four Europeans.

The internal dissensions had ended by placing on the golden stool, the Ashanti symbol of sovereignty, the new king, Kofi Karikari. He declared at once that his sole business would be war, and that he intended to bring the neighbouring tribes into subjection once again, even including the Fanti and coastal tribes within the British colony. With these aims in view, the Ashanti crossed the Prah river boundary into the British Protectorate, defeated the Fanti, and encamped close to Cape Coast Castle. Britain took energetic steps. No less a soldier than Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent against the invaders, while a force from Lagos under its administrator, Captain John Glover, R.N., co-operated. White troops as well as native were employed, and Kofi Karikari, thoroughly frightened by these forceful measures, tried to make a quick peace by releasing his European captives. But Wolseley was determined to teach him a lesson. He marched on to Kumasi, entered the capital, burned it, and returned in triumph. Kofi Karikari had fled, but he sent envoys to sue for peace, and terms were drawn up at Fomana. The Ashanti king had to pay 50,000 oz. of gold, renounce his overlordship of the neighbouring tribes and his claim to the old Dutch territory, give the British free facilities for trade, and check the practice of human sacrifice.

These terms were not fulfilled by the Ashanti, and Britain took no action to enforce them. She even

refused to take under her wing those tribes who threw off the Ashanti yoke and asked to be protected. The result was that the power of this warlike people revived. Kofi Karikari did not himself survive his defeat, but a new leader, Prince Prempeh, arose, who defied the British at every turn. He paid no tribute, he allowed human sacrifices to continue, he permitted his kingdom to sink into chaos and barbarity, and he closed the roads to the traders. In these anarchic circumstances Britain required Prempeh to accept a protectorate over his kingdom. Prempeh refused.

Another incursion into Ashanti thus became necessary. It was entrusted to Colonel Sir Francis Scott. The expedition is noteworthy for the care and efficiency with which it was organised. Supply services, transport and communications were so perfected that Kumasi was occupied without opposition, and Prempeh was forced to capitulate unconditionally. After making public submission, he was deposed and banished to Seychelles, but was allowed to return as a private individual in 1924. A protectorate was then declared over Ashanti (1896).

The Kumasi chiefs never accepted the situation and hid the golden stool, the Ashanti symbol of kingship, so that no British nominee should be placed upon it. They were ordered to surrender the stool, but it did not actually come to light until 1921. Meanwhile there was no king in Kumasi, and a British Resident took control. The Ashanti, however, were still unreconciled and were preparing underground an attempt to throw off British authority. In 1900 a serious rebellion occurred. No less than 40,000 men were in arms against us, and Kumasi was besieged. The garrison was a small one, and included the Governor of the Gold

Coast, Sir Frederick Hodgson, who was trapped in the town. After about three months investment, the Governor, who had Lady Hodgson with him, all the Europeans except three, and 600 of the garrison left the fort, cut their way through the besieging lines, and reached Cape Coast in safety. The three white men and a hundred natives left behind to continue the defence held out while a relief column was dispatched under Colonel Willcocks. Overcoming mountainous obstacles, the column fought its way into Kumasi to find the men of the little garrison scarcely able to stand from weakness.

With Kumasi taken, Colonel Willcocks overcame all further resistance on the part of the Ashanti. The country was annexed to the British dominions and given a separate administration under the Governor of the Gold Coast. Since those days there has been a great growth of mutual confidence between the British and the Ashanti. The native customs, laws and tribal organisations are safeguarded; their rightful chiefs are supported; their interests are respected; and their defence is sure. The natives have come to appreciate the solid advantages conferred upon them by British rule and have lost their suspicion of some ultimate, nefarious motive on the part of the white man.

In the north of Ashanti runs the river, the Black Volta. It forms the boundary, and beyond it is an open, well-timbered country, which was explored during the last quarter of the 19th century by French, British and German travellers. On behalf of Britain, treaties were made with several of the African tribes by George E. Ferguson, who gave his life in the British cause. There was some friction between the European powers interested until spheres of influence were delineated and

agreed upon. In 1897 the British sphere, which was given the name of the Northern Territories, was constituted a Protectorate under the Gold Coast. Native confidence was won, the terror of the slave-raider was removed from the minds of the people, the tribal organisation was maintained, and an era of prosperity was inaugurated under British guidance. The men of the Territories have been given the opportunity of British military training and have proved themselves excellent soldiers.

Before the Great War the territories of the Gold Coast had as their eastern neighbour the German colony of Togoland. In 1884 the German Government had dispatched Dr. Gustav Nachtigal to West Africa, his mission being to secure for Germany those portions of the Continent not appropriated by other powers. Togoland and Cameroon thus became German colonies. When hostilities broke out in 1914, British sea-power prevented Germany from giving effective aid to her overseas possession, which lay open to attack by her enemies. Togoland was captured in the first month of the war, largely through bluff. First, Lome, the capital and chief port, was seized by a scratch force; and then Kamena, where one of the finest wireless stations in the world was situated, fell to the ruse of sending natives into the place with reports that it was about to be attacked by overwhelming numbers. The German governor was led to believe that, so strong were the British, a successful defence was out of the question, and thus, to save unnecessary bloodshed, was persuaded to yield up the colony.

The French, whose territory lay north and east of Togoland, joined in these operations; and when peace was signed and the former German possessions parcellled

out among the victors to hold in trust for the League of Nations under the mandatory system, the ex-colony was divided between Britain and France. France got Lome and the lion's share of the coastline and hinterland, including the only railways in the territory. Britain has administered her much smaller portion as part of the Gold Coast.

The capital and seat of government of the Gold Coast territories is Accra, now a town of over 70,000 inhabitants. It is situated on the slopes of the Aquapim Hills, and is more healthy than Cape Coast Castle, the old capital, and Elmina, the former Dutch trading centre. It includes portions that were originally settled by the Danes. Port facilities have lately been much improved. The Gold Coast is badly off for harbours. A complete barrier of sand banks and shallow lagoons runs along the coast, and only in one or two places can ocean-going vessels approach close inshore. Landing has to take place by means of surf boats.

Cape Coast Castle, the British capital until 1875, is second in importance to Accra, and has a population of 20,000. The old historic castle stands on a rocky eminence overlooking the sea. Sekondi is another coastal town, where much valuable work has been done to improve the harbour. It, too, has over 20,000 inhabitants. Kumasi, the capital of Ashanti, is not so interesting a place as it used to be before the burning of 1874 destroyed the fine buildings of native decorative architecture. The capital of the Northern Territories is Tamale, of 18,000 people, pleasantly situated on the White Volta. Elmina has lost all but its historical interest since the departure of the Dutch.

The Gold Coast is prosperous and self-supporting. The chief crop is cocoa, of which half the world's supply

is grown in the colony. Secondary lines are kola nuts, palm oil, palm kernels, mahogany, manganese ore, and some diamonds. Gold has recently had an astonishing revival on rich ore-bearings in Ashanti and Western Province. Cocoa is the principal crop also in Ashanti, grown mostly in the south. The Protectorate has, too, in addition to its advancing gold-mining industry, immense forests of valuable timbers. In the more open Northern Territories cattle-raising is the chief industry, though certain crops are grown for home consumption, and there is an export trade in shea butter and ground-nuts. In Togoland palm oil and palm kernels are the most profitable products.

Much has been done to open up the Gold Coast territories by road and railway. One line runs from Accra to Kumasi and on to Tarkwa, the gold centre, and Takoradi. Another line runs inland from Sekondi. Some thousands of miles of road are available to motor traffic in the dry season. It is a great civilising work that Britain has undertaken in this part of Africa, and a work that is appreciated by the Africans whom it is designed to benefit.

NIGERIA

(WITH BRITISH CAMEROONS)

The Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria and the adjacent mandated territory of British Cameroons form by far the largest of Britain's dependencies in West Africa. Just as it is the most extensive, so the greatest hopes are entertained of its future. The country is bigger than Hitler's Germany, and has a population of over twenty millions. With its vast tracts of fertile soil, miles of dense forests, and rich mineral resources, it

should become an asset of increasing value to the British Empire.

The history of Nigeria is a little confusing, because it is not a plant that has grown from a single stem, as the case has been in so many of Britain's colonies. The dependency is an amalgamation of a number of distinct enterprises begun at different points on the Bight of Benin, formerly called the Slave Coast, and working independently. Thus the colony proper comprises what was known a generation ago as Lagos, and consists of the present Lagos town and a strip of coast on either side. The huge Protectorate is divided into two main divisions called the Northern and Southern Provinces, and these coincide with the boundaries of the earlier and separate protectorates of Southern Nigeria and Northern Nigeria. Southern Nigeria grew out of the old protectorates founded by the trading companies, the Oil Rivers Protectorate and the Niger Coast Protectorate, situated on the delta of the Niger River. Northern Nigeria resulted from the journeys of British explorers and the active emissaries of trade. The British Cameroons were part of the former German colony of Kamerun, conquered by Anglo-French forces during the Great War, and divided between the two powers at the peace to be governed under a League of Nations mandate.

These various parts of Nigeria were once under separate administrations. To-day they are ruled by one Governor who has his seat at Lagos. He is assisted by an Executive Council, which controls both the Colony and the Protectorate. There is also a Legislative Council for the Colony and the Southern Provinces of the Protectorate, which, in addition, supervises expenditure in the Northern Provinces. It does not, however, make

laws for the Northern Provinces: these are made by the Governor alone. This Legislative Council is a large and important body. It consists of the Governor and members of the Executive Council, with other official members to a total not exceeding thirty; three members elected by the ratepayers of Lagos; one member elected by the ratepayers of Calabar; five selected to represent commerce and mines, and two to represent banking and shipping; and seven representatives of the Africans for those parts of the country which have no voice in electing members. The Northern and Southern Provinces are each administered by a Chief Commissioner with headquarters respectively at Kaduna and Enugu; and these great areas are subdivided into smaller divisions, each under a Resident.

In each native state in Northern Nigeria there is a treasury, known to the people as a "Beit-el-Mal," which regulates the monies assigned to each emirate. The native chief, or emir, draws his authority from the Beit-el-Mal, which reduces the risk of corruption in the administration of the native states and provides for impartial justice.

There is a very great difference between the native peoples who live in the northern half of the protectorate to those who live in the south, just as there are very great differences in the nature of the country. Southern Nigeria is low and swampy along the coast, and inland is covered for the most part with thick forests, at no great elevation. Northern Nigeria, which is much higher, is to a large extent open prairie, with dry, desert-looking plains. The people of the south are low down in the social scale and pagan in outlook and practice. Those of the north are most of them Moslems and have acquired a much higher state of culture.

These tribes, of which the Fulani and Hausas are the most important, were at one time a part of a great Mohammedan African Empire, which had its headquarters at Timbuctoo. They possess their walled towns, their mosques, their white houses and shading palm groves, and are ruled by their emirs in more enlightened fashion than their southern neighbours. At one time opposed to the European traders, they at length made treaties with the British and placed themselves under the protection of the Crown.

Just as the inhabitants and physical features of North and South differ, so does the climate. The coastlands are hot and damp. The temperature often reaches 100 degrees in the shade, and as much as 120 inches of rain falls in the year. When the rainy season is on, there are often large tracts under water, and the rank, prolific vegetation appears to be wading in the water, which it turns brackish. These conditions make a paradise for mosquitoes, and render attacks of malaria almost inescapable for Europeans. Even natives suffer extensively. The climate is little healthier in the dense forest region, but not until one reaches the higher districts of Northern Nigeria is the air drier and more salubrious.

The most prominent feature of Nigeria is that which gives it its name—the river Niger itself. This great waterway, which has a total length of 2,600 miles, enters the country in the north-west, after rising near the north-east frontier of Sierra Leone and flowing for 1,800 miles through French territory in a vast curve with Timbuctoo at the apex. In Nigeria the Niger is soon joined by the Sokoto from the north-east, and some distance downstream occur the dangerous Bussa rapids, which extend for fifty miles. The next important tributary is the Kaduna, the waterway to Zungeru, which has

been the administrative capital of Northern Nigeria since 1900. Further south, at a point 250 miles from the sea, the river receives its greatest tributary of all, the Benue, which has itself flowed 800 miles from the east. Here the Niger is three-quarters of a mile wide, and the Benue even wider. At the confluence stands the important trading centre of Lokoja. The Niger is called the river of the hundred mouths, for almost 150 miles inland begins the great delta, one of the most remarkable of nature's phenomena. There the river breaks up into innumerable channels, which divide and divide again, cross and recross, forming one of the most extraordinary mangrove-covered swamps in all Africa, which spreads along the coast for 120 miles. Nor does the Niger keep its delta to itself. Other streams empty themselves into it, and the traders, who came there first to export the palm oil of the country, named the district the Oil Rivers.

The existence of the Niger was known to the old rulers of Egypt, but little was done to discover where it went or through what countries it flowed, until the great Scottish explorer, Mungo Park, made it his business to find out. He struck the upper reaches by approaching it from Gambia, and in 1805 set out a second time to traverse the whole river to its mouth. He passed Timbuctoo and reached what is now Nigeria, but at the Bussa rapids he was attacked by natives and killed. Other brave explorers followed until the whole course of the great river was made known.

In tracing the history of Nigeria we go back, as always, to the 15th century and the Portuguese navigators. But neither Portugal, nor France, whose traders were most active along this coast, nor the English, who arrived in the late 16th and early 17th century,

attempted any settlement. They were content merely to trade with the natives, and for this did not stray farther than they could help from the safety of their ships and their factories. The trade was mostly in slaves, and the slave coast became the name for the indentation called the Bight of Benin. Many of the slaves came from the native kingdom of Benin, a powerful, well-organised tribe, whose king ruled at Benin town and exercised sway over the coastlands. The Portuguese were there in 1485, and English traders established contact in Elizabeth's time. It was not only slaves that Benin supplied, although these wretched creatures were the main article of commerce for 200 years. The natives possessed a culture rare among Africans, and were excellent carvers and workers in brass. These interested the early English traders, who also added ivory, pepper and palm oil to their lists of merchandise.

The interior remained unknown and unexplored until enthusiastic British traders and travellers set about opening it up. Major Dixon Denham and Captain Hugh Clapperton accomplished a magnificent journey from Tripoli across the Sahara in 1823, and entered the present Nigeria from the north. Three years later Captain Clapperton made a further trip, this time in the reverse direction, when, starting from the Guinea Coast, he came into Northern Nigeria from the south. The course of the Niger south of Bussa, where Mungo Park's gallant effort ended, remained a mystery until 1830, in which year Richard and John Lander explored it from this point to the sea. Two years afterwards, Macgregor Laird began to organise the navigation of the Niger up to Lokoja, where the Benue joins it. A British post was established at this town after a series of journeys by Dr. Barth, who was sent

out officially by the British Government to map the interior and whose work has been a valuable guide to all those who have followed him.

After this phase of exploration, the foundations of the colony were laid. Operations were first begun at Lagos in the west. Forty miles west of the island of Lagos, near the border of French Dahomey, is a coastal town named Badagry. It was here in 1851 that British traders established themselves as a permanency. Kosoko, the Yoruba king of Lagos Island, objected and launched an attack on the settlers. The British Navy thereupon intervened, occupied Lagos Island, deposed Kosoko, and put his cousin, Akitoye, on the throne, making him promise to suppress the slave trade. Akitoye promised, but did not perform: and so also did his son and successor, Docemo. In 1861, therefore, important action was taken. In return for a yearly pension of 1,200 bags of cowries, Docemo was persuaded to surrender his sovereignty into British hands. This strange cowrie pension was commuted to £1,000 a year, which the fortunate Docemo continued to draw until his death twenty-four years later.

Once Docemo was out of the way, the British set about building the town of Lagos on the ceded island. It grew very rapidly, for, seeing it under the stable rule of Britain, a stream of natives came from the mainland and made their homes in it. To-day it is the capital of the whole of Nigeria and has a population of nearly 140,000. It is rather well situated on a lagoon. Indeed, it was the numerous lagoons and lakes in this part of the coast that originally suggested the name of Lagos to the Portuguese discoverers. Between Lagos Island and the mainland is another island, named Iddo, which was acquired at the same time. To-day Lagos Island,

Iddo Island, and the mainland are connected by an iron bridge, which carries both road and railway. The two sections are 2,600 feet and 917 feet long respectively. The modern town of Lagos is well planned and well served. There are excellent public buildings and well-built private villas. There is even a racecourse. Much of the ground is reclaimed swamp, so it cannot be said that this imperial base, 4,000 miles from England, is altogether a health resort.

Other acquisitions of territory were made from time to time, and neighbouring native kingdoms brought under British jurisdiction to form the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos. From 1866 to 1874 it was part of the West African Settlements, ruled from Freetown, Sierra Leone. Then for a time it was associated with the Gold Coast. In 1886, however, it was made a dependency on its own, and the coastal portion of the native kingdom of Benin, which was then in a state of decline, was incorporated in the protectorate.

While this progress was being made at Lagos in the west, activity had begun in the east around the delta of the Niger. In 1879 the United African Company was formed, chiefly through the enterprise of George Goldie-Taubman, who later, as Sir George Goldie, was to write many an important chapter of Nigeria's history. Goldie had the great idea of uniting all British interest on the Niger and forming a new possession for Britain. He was just in time, for the French had appeared on the lower reaches of the river and established as many as thirty trading posts. In 1884 Goldie's United African Company bought the French out. This enabled Britain's representative at the Berlin Conference of 1884-5, convened to agree on the partition of Africa among the powers, to show that as far as the Lower

Niger was concerned British interests were paramount. This being accepted by the Conference naturally led to the declaration of a new British protectorate, the Protectorate of Oil Rivers, in June, 1885.

Meanwhile Germany was active on the West Coast of Africa, and in 1885 had established herself in Cameroon, which adjoins Nigeria on the east. The British protectorate was then extended to Rio del Rey, the Cameroon border town. The Germans were to prove somewhat restless neighbours before the frontiers between their territory and Britain's was finally decided.

In 1886 the United African Company, which had done such splendid work in securing the Niger delta for Britain, received a charter and became the Royal Niger Company. It was given control of all territories from Lokoja, where the Niger and Benue join, to the sea. Above Lokoja, the strong, more advanced Moslem tribes kept the traders out. Nevertheless, the Charter Company managed to make treaties with the emirs and created a British sphere of influence in competition with those created by France and Germany. There were some difficult negotiations between the three powers, but eventually the limits of their respective spheres were amicably settled.

In 1893 Oil Rivers became the Niger Coast Protectorate, and four years later the now famous West African Frontier Force was created by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, then Colonial Secretary, to meet the unfriendly attitude of France. It was not only the French, either, who gave trouble in this golden jubilee year. The emirs of Nupe and Illorin in Northern Nigeria proved hostile; and Sir George Goldie, in a swift and brilliant campaign, overcame thousands of Moslem Africans with a handful of British officers and a few

hundred native troops. This victory put an end to the rampant traffic in slaves, which was the real bone of contention between the Royal Niger Company and the Emirs.

There was trouble, too, in the old kingdom of Benin. The king refused to treat with the British and continued his hideous practice of human sacrifices, crucifying crowds of victims in the ritual attending his spirit and ancestor worship. He had been warned to stop it, and when a European mission approached his capital at the very time he was offering hecatombs to his gods, he murdered them in the bush in case he should be caught literally red-handed. This brought a punitive expedition, which was so well organised that Benin was occupied, the king deported, and the guilty chiefs executed, all within a few weeks. These events established British rule firmly from the Bight of Benin to Lake Chad.

The Royal Niger Company had brought huge territories into the British Empire, but themselves had not the resources to exploit them. In 1899, therefore, the charter was surrendered, and Nigeria—the name that by now had come to be used for the country of the great river—was transferred to the Crown. The traders dropped the designation “royal” and became a mere commercial concern with no administrative rights. The Government tried the first of a number of experiments in an effort to find the most satisfactory method of ruling the territories.

From 1st January, 1900, the country was formed into two protectorates, Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria, the latter absorbing the old Niger Coast Protectorate. Efforts were made throughout the whole region to stop the fierce inter-tribal warfare which was

waged principally to make captives and secure a supply of human material for the domestic slavery then in force. Although Britain's policy was to make friends with the natives, she set her face sternly against slave-raiding. Some of the native chiefs in Northern Nigeria rebelled against its suppression. Those who did so were deposed. Certain of them, as Kano and Sokoto, required deposition by force. Eventually, however, all the native rulers accepted the no-slavery rule, agreed to obey British laws, paid their taxes to British authorities, surrendered their fire-arms, and acknowledged that the rights in the land were British-owned.

Slavery has proved a difficult problem for the British administrators in Nigeria. Progress towards complete abolition has necessarily been slow in a country where the system was so deeply rooted. The dislocation of suppression at a stroke would have produced endless trouble. At first it was declared that all children born after January 1st, 1900, should be free. Then the buying and selling of slaves was forbidden. The slave markets were abolished; and finally, in 1917, domestic slavery was deprived of the legal status which up to then it had enjoyed.

In 1906 Lagos and Southern Nigeria were united to form the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. Northern Nigeria remained a protectorate on its own until 1914, when it was amalgamated with the other territories to make the Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria, with that great proconsul, Sir Frederick Lugard, as the first Governor of the whole country.

During the Great War the native peoples of Nigeria remained loyal to Britain in spite of the fact that fighting was going on in the neighbouring territory. This fighting was the effort to wrest the Cameroons from its

German owners. It began in August 1914, when a British invading force crossed the border from Nigeria. Its first experiences were unhappy. The Germans, very gallantly led by Colonel Zimmerman, inflicted three successive defeats on the British in the first few weeks. Eventually the French lent a hand, and the combined forces captured the chief port of Duala. Following up the retreating German columns was a severe test for the troops, among whom the Royal West African Frontier Force distinguished itself. The Cameroons campaign was no picnic. At times the fighting was heavy. The storming of Banyo Hill in the north, against a rain of dynamite bombs, by the forces under General Cunliffe, was a feat of arms of which any army might be proud. By February 1916 the German resistance was overcome, and Zimmerman made his escape into neutral Spanish territory.

At the peace the conquered Cameroons, with its great mountain nearly 14,000 feet high, was divided between Britain and France to be administered under a League of Nations mandate. Five-sixths of the country was given to France. Britain's share consisted of 34,000 square miles along the eastern border of Nigeria, which contains about 825,000 Africans. It is governed as a province of Nigeria.

Nigeria is valuable both for its agriculture and minerals. It grows and exports palm oil and kernels, cotton lint, cocoa and ground-nuts. It raises other crops for home consumption. Livestock is an important industry, and hides and skins are shipped abroad. Good quality coal is obtained from the Udi coalfields; and for centuries the natives have worked the mines of tin, lead and iron. To exploit these resources two great railway systems have been constructed. The western

starts from Lagos and runs to Kano, over 700 miles away in Northern Nigeria. It has important branches, notably to the Bauchi tin-fields. The eastern system begins at Port Harcourt on the Niger Delta, crosses the Benue, and joins the western line at Kaduna, a distance of 570 miles. It also has branches. These railways bring the cities of Northern Nigeria, a territory of great potentialities, into touch with the lower reaches of the Niger, which are navigable the whole year round. Good roads and numerous rivers and creeks complete a transportation system which could well cope with the enormous volume of trade of which the great, but still young, country of Nigeria is capable of supporting.

ASCENSION ISLAND

In addition to her string of possessions on the African mainland, Britain holds a number of islands in the South Atlantic. It might be thought that these should be included more properly in our chapter on the Atlantic colonies, but actually Ascension Island, St. Helena, and the Tristan da Cunha group belong in essentials to the West African Empire.

Ascension Island is the most northerly of the South Atlantic dependencies. It is extremely isolated: 900 miles from the African coast; 3,400 miles from England; and 700 miles from St. Helena, from which it is administered under the Colonial Office. The whole island does not measure more than 34 square miles, $7\frac{1}{2}$ at its longest and 6 at its broadest. It is volcanic in origin, and the peak known as Green Mountain attains a height of nearly 3,000 feet. The highlands are damp and generally foggy, but below 1,800 feet the climate is kept dry and agreeable by the south-east trade-wind.

It was the Portuguese explorer, Joao de Nova Castella, who discovered Ascension Island, and the date was Ascension Day, 1501. It was not Joao, however, who named it, but the famous Alphonse Albuquerque on his visit two years later. Exactly two hundred years after the original discovery, William Dampier, the first Englishman to reach Australia, was wrecked on Ascension and managed to discover on Green Mountain the only spring of fresh water the island possesses.

No one thought of trying to settle Ascension Island until 1815, when the British, with Napoleon their captive on St. Helena, thought it advisable to station a small garrison there. Afterwards it was administered by the Admiralty as a naval base and coaling station, and was officially called H.M.S. Ascension. In 1922 the island was transferred to the Colonial Office and made a dependency of St. Helena.

There are about 190 people on Ascension Island. Their little capital is officially Georgetown, but known locally as Garrison. It is situated on the north-west coast, six miles from Dampier's spring, on which depends the water supply. About ten acres of the island are cultivated, and fruit and vegetables are raised for the support of the inhabitants. Ascension is noted for the sea-turtles which visit it between January and May and lay their eggs in the sand. Every eighth month come vast numbers of the sooty tern, or wideawake, which nest on the island.

ST. HELENA

Almost as lonely as Ascension Island is St. Helena, 1,200 miles from the nearest point of Africa, 1,800 miles

from South America; also about 4,500 miles from Southampton and 1,700 miles from Cape Town. But it is larger than its dependency, being 47 square miles, $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by $6\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Moreover, there are many more people on it. The number is now about 4,350. It is a mixed crowd. The Europeans are the descendants of British, Dutch and Portuguese settlers, who have intermarried. There are a number of East Indians and many Africans. The earliest settlers were members of the crews of various trading vessels plying between Europe and the East.

St. Helena is a picturesque island, volcanic like Ascension, with its highest peak climbing 2,700 feet into the sky. The scenic variety provided by the rugged mountains and the beautiful ravines clothed in their tropical dress is quite charming. Streams and springs are numerous, and the climate, for a tropical island, is mild and pleasant, rather reminiscent of the Canaries. The south-east trade-wind acts as a cooling fan. September is a cold month, the coldest, in fact, as March is the warmest. A curiosity is the small difference there is between the day and night temperatures.

The little capital of Jamestown on St. James' Bay is naturally hotter than the high parts of the island. It is the only spot on St. Helena where a port and anchorage are possible, being a break in the steep cliffs which ring the coast, sometimes to a height of 2,000 feet. More than half the population live in Jamestown, and the majority of them are what are known as Yamstalks. The Yamstalks are descendants of Negroes who were imported to do the work of the colony in the early days of its existence. They are rather good fellows, easy to get on with and satisfied with little. They are not so black as the ordinary Negro, and are, speaking

generally, a race of lean men and fat women. One of the sights of Jamestown is Jacob's Ladder. This is a great stairway of 699 steps which runs from sea-level up a cliff face 600 feet high.

St. Helena is, of course, chiefly famous as the place of exile of the great Napoleon. He lived and died at Longwood, which is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Jamestown, and delightfully situated 2,000 feet above the sea. He was buried here on May 5th, 1821, and a slab marks the spot where his body first rested. In 1840 his remains were transferred to Paris. Eighteen years later Queen Victoria presented the house he occupied to his nephew, Emperor Napoleon III, who had it restored, but left it unfurnished.

Joao de Nova Castella, the Portuguese discoverer of Ascension Island, has St. Helena also to his credit. The date was St. Helena's Day, 1502, and so determined the island's name. Portugal stocked it as a port of call for her ships going to India, but the only permanent resident was a Portuguese traitor, Fernando Lopez, who was mutilated for his crime, and lived there in isolation from 1513 to 1546. The first English visitor was Thomas Cavendish, who touched there in 1588. In 1633 the Dutch annexed it, but abandoned it when they founded Cape Town.

Several English Captains had called at St. Helena from time to time, and in 1659 the East India Company took possession of it. Their occupation was confirmed by charter, and they built a fort, calling it Fort James after the then Duke of York. In 1673 the Dutch returned and held St. Helena for a few months before the Company retook it. Charles II issued a new charter, and the Company remained in possession right up until 1833 with the exception of a break of six years.

Those six years were important, for it was then the island was lent to the British Government as a residence for the defeated Napoleon. A strong garrison was kept at St. Helena during this period, and Sir Hudson Lowe acted as Governor. With the death of the French Emperor, the East India Company reassumed control. But not for long. In 1834 the island was taken over by the Crown.

During the rule of the Company St. Helena enjoyed a period of remarkable prosperity. It was conveniently situated on the trade route to India, and thousands of vessels used to call there every year for revictualling and refitting. In the days of the sailing ship, days before much was known about the science of food preservation, frequent supplies of fresh provisions were necessary to avoid the curse of scurvy. St. Helena was in a position to meet this great need, and the island became rich in consequence. William Dampier, Robert Jenkins of Jenkin's ear fame, and Edmund Halley, the astronomer, are some of the famous Britons associated with its history. The plantations were worked originally by Negro slaves and after the abolition of slavery, by Chinese. Rich merchants and company officials took up residence in the island, and few imagined that the future would be less kindly. But the coming of the steamship, the new ways of food preservation, and finally the opening of the Suez Canal diverting the Indian and Eastern trade to the Mediterranean route, ended St. Helena's era of great prosperity. Both trade and population steadily declined, and the colony lost much of its importance, although still useful to the Navy as a coaling station.

A very unfortunate event occurred in 1840. A slave ship introduced a species of voracious white ant from

South America. It had soon increased to such an extent that it became a perfect plague. In Jamestown most of the public library was eaten, and the woodwork of many other buildings, public and private, was destroyed. Nearly everything had to be reconstructed, and for this purpose teak and cypress were used, since these are woods which can defy the white ant's depredations.

Napoleon was not the only distinguished exile to languish and dream on St. Helena. Dinizulu and other Zulu chiefs were removed there for safety; and during the South African War of 1899-1902 Cronje and many other Boer prisoners-of-war found themselves marooned on this Atlantic fortress.

St. Helena has had to find other activities to take the place, if only to some extent, of the old thriving business of shipping. A phormium flax industry has been established, and a government mill has been at work for thirty years. There are other, private mills, and many hundreds of acres are under flax. The fibre is made from a plant called the New Zealand flax: no one appears to know the origin of the name. Lacc-making is another line that might be made profitable. Cattle and sheep do well on the island, and at one time provided the ships with much-needed supplies, but to-day there is no export market for their meat. In her fruit trees, cedars and eucalyptus and in her lily bulbs St. Helena has further potential assets in her plucky struggle to retain some of the prosperity which she once enjoyed.

All ordinances for St. Helena and Ascension Island are made by the Governor alone, who has the assistance of an Executive Council of six.

TRISTAN DA CUNHA

Even more isolated than Ascension Island and St. Helena is the South Atlantic group known as the Tristan da Cunha Islands. They are 2,000 miles from the Cape of Good Hope and 4,000 from Cape Horn. Even St. Helena is 1,500 miles away. This outpost of Empire consists of Tristan da Cunha Island itself, Inaccessible Island, the Nightingale Islands, and Gough's Island, which were made dependencies of St. Helena in 1938.

Tristan da Cunha is for all practical purposes the colony. All the Atlantic islands are volcanic, and Tristan is actually an extinct volcano, rising from an almost circular base, with a circumference of 21 miles, to a height of nearly 8,000 feet. The whole area totals about 16 square miles. The appearance of this extremely lonely place is stern and forbidding, and yet those who have made it their home have withstood all persuasion to leave it for the African mainland.

Inaccessible Island, some 20 miles from Tristan, is little more than a huge rock measuring two miles from end to end. It has remained almost uninhabited. When H.M.S. *Challenger* visited the group in 1873, she took off two Germans who had managed to exist on Inaccessible Island for two years. Cultivation was started there as recently as 1937. The permanent inhabitants are thousands of penguins and sea-birds.

The Nightingale Islands are three in number. The largest is a mile long: the other two are little more than rocks. They owe their name to the visit of a British naval officer in 1760, who called them after himself. The only creatures particularly interested in them to-day are the seals and sea-elephants. Gough's Island, 250 miles south-east of Tristan and forty square

miles in area, took its name from the master of a British vessel which called there in 1731. It is valuable for its guano deposits.

The islands were sighted by the Portuguese admiral, Tristan da Cunha, in 1506, and have immortalised the discoverer in their name. The Portuguese made no attempt to settle them; nor did the Dutch, who visited them later. In the 18th century French and British sealers often touched at the group, and odd members of their crews resided in Tristan for a limited period. The first permanent resident was a man named Thomas Currie, who landed in 1810. He was joined by two Americans, one of whom claimed the group as his own property, naming them the Islands of Refreshment. Both Americans were drowned, but Currie stayed on to be joined by two companions. They all set about growing corn and vegetables and breeding pigs, until war broke out between Britain and the United States in 1812.

During hostilities the American cruisers used Tristan da Cunha as a base from which to conduct raids on British shipping. Lord Charles Somerset, then Governor at Cape Town, urged the British Government to make the islands a dependency of the Cape of Good Hope. On August 14th, 1816, therefore, the Tristan da Cunha were annexed and garrisoned. But the garrison was soon withdrawn.

When the troops left, Corporal William Glass asked permission to remain behind with his wife and two children. He was joined in this choice of the simple life by a couple of masons, who had been employed on garrison work. Five coloured women were persuaded to come from St. Helena in 1827 to marry the five bachelors then on the island. Shipwrecked sailors,

Dutch, Italian, and Asiatic, swelled the little community, and wives were obtained for them from the Cape. The people were therefore of extremely mixed blood, but the British strain managed to remain predominant.

Glass ruled his little settlement like an old-time patriarch. He supervised the sowing of crops and the rearing of cattle, sheep and pigs. But the most profitable of the islanders' activities was seal-fishing. The ex-corporal died in 1853, and his patriarchal seat was taken by the oldest surviving inhabitant. This rule was followed right down to 1933, when the senior islander was given the assistance of a council of four, and a women's council for feminine needs. The patriarch always acted as the spokesman of the islanders and even performed marriages when no chaplain was in residence.

The colony has had its ups and downs. In 1856 one of the American whalers, which had been visiting the islands over a number of years, carried 25 of the 100 inhabitants to a new life in the U.S.A. Others, tired of the lonely existence and cramped opportunities, migrated to the Cape. In 1885 a lifeboat manned by the islanders was upset when taking provisions to a passing ship, and 15 men were drowned. This left Tristan with only four able-bodied males. Attempts were made to persuade the remainder to leave, but these attempts failed, as they failed again and again when many times repeated. In spite of hardships, loneliness, potato crop failures, cattle disease, and other setbacks, the islanders clung to their rocky haven.

In 1882 rats escaped to the island from a wrecked ship. They did an enormous amount of damage. For a long time it was impossible for the settlers to grow corn. The rats had it all. Fuel was another difficulty,

for deforestation, without replacement, made supplies meagre. But the people manage to subsist. Potatoes are their great stand-by. Fish, too, are plentiful. They are successful in breeding cows, sheep, pigs and geese. They have the apple and the peach; and comforts and supplies are sometimes brought from the outside world by visiting vessels. The islanders enjoy splendid health and live to a ripe old age. Constant inter-marriage does not seem to have impaired the stock. They are sober, religious-minded, kindly people, though somewhat shy with strangers.

Their little town is called Edinburgh, after the Duke of Edinburgh, who visited the islands in 1867. It is built on a fertile stretch in the north-west of Tristan, and possesses well-built cottages of stone and a church. It is very small, of course. The total population of the Tristan da Cunha Islands is only 185.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RHODESIAS AND NYASALAND

IN Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland, Britain owns a territory in Central Africa as large as England, France and Italy put together. That she owns it at all is very largely due to the energy and enterprise of two of the greatest of her sons: David Livingstone, the explorer, and Cecil Rhodes, the empire-builder.

The early history of the country, to which the latter of these two famous Britons has given his name, is so obscure that scientists and archæologists have not been able to make up their minds about it. Some aver that it was a powerful and prosperous kingdom in the times of David and Solomon: others that the ruins of Zimbabwe and other places of Southern Rhodesia are the relics of builders who thrived in the Middle Ages.

From the numerous rock paintings and other evidences one is inclined to believe in a very early occupation of this great stretch of Africa between the Belgian Congo and the Transvaal, but we reach more authentic history with the empire of the Monomatapas. These were hereditary chiefs, who ruled most of what is now Rhodesia during the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, and had trading relations with the Portuguese. This empire, of which we know very little, appears to have declined so seriously through inter-tribal fighting that it fell to pieces and was unable to offer any sort of concerted resistance to the coming of the Matabele.

The warlike Matabele were an off-shoot of the Zulus. Their leader was Mosilikatze, a general serving under the powerful Chaka, known as the Zulu Napoleon. Chaka had a law that all booty taken in war should be handed over to him as paramount chief. Mosilikatze, after a specially successful campaign, refused to disgorge. Chaka threatened dire penalties, and Mosilikatze, at the head of his impi, or regiment, retreated northwards, devastating the country behind him in order to make pursuit impossible. By these means Mosilikatze won his independence and settled his impi on lands near the present town of Pretoria. The date was 1817, and from this year the history of the Matabele nation may be said to start.

Mosilikatze and his people were not left long in undisputed possession of their new home. In 1836 came the trek of the Boers from Cape Colony; and those of them who crossed the Vaal River found themselves at once in conflict with the Matabele. Fighting was desperate, but eventually the white man's superior weapons decided the issue, and Mosilikatze resolved on moving farther northward still, and crossed the Limpopo River, which now marks the northern boundary of the Transvaal.

Mosilikatze died in 1868, and there were disputes as to who should succeed him. Eventually his son, Lobengula, made good his claim and by 1870 was firmly established as chief with his kraal at Bulawayo. Lobengula employed the warlike character of his people to dominate the more peaceful Mashona tribe to the north of him, and extended his authority to the Zambesi, the great river which divides Rhodesia into its northern and southern portions.

While Mosilikatze was still alive, all this central

region of Africa was brought within the ken of Europeans by the wonderful journeys of Livingstone. Between 1852 and 1856 he started out from Cape Town and ended up at Quilimane in Portuguese East Africa. He had only a small party to support him, and their stores were really quite inadequate for the task they had undertaken. The difficulties they faced were stupendous. Sickness and fatigue, suffering and despair, were bravely overcome, and valuable information about the climate, the natives, and the agricultural and commercial possibilities of Central Africa was given to the world.

It was during this great journey that Livingstone explored the upper reaches of the Zambesi, and came upon that awe-inspiring natural phenomenon, the Victoria Falls, of which he has left us such a vivid description. When a long way off the thunder of the falls was audible, and as the party approached they saw the great white clouds of spray mounting heavenwards, an all-enveloping mist, which had suggested the native name, Musi-oa-tunya, "smoke does sound here." At the place itself the Zambesi is nearly two thousand yards broad, and plunges sheer into a deep fissure almost 400 feet down. The gorge, the only outlet from the fissure, is no more than 100 feet wide, through which the frantic, swirling waters rush madly into the Grand Canon, which has been given the highly dramatic title of the "Corridors of Time." In Livingstone's own words, "The entire Falls are simply a crack made in the hard basalt rock from the right to the left bank of the Zambesi, and then prolonged from the left bank through thirty or forty miles of hills." The opposite wall of the chasm, into which the river plunges, is the same height as the top of the falls, so that from a

distance the Zambesi seems actually to disappear into the bowels of the earth. Along part of this opposite side are trees, whose leaves are perpetually wet from the rising spray, a circumstance that has suggested the present picturesque name of the Rain Forest. To-day the Gorge below the falls is spanned by one of the highest railway bridges in the world. Livingstone named the falls after his Queen, and the town, which grew up near them, was named after the explorer himself.

In 1858-59 Livingstone undertook a new journey through what is now Nyasaland, which borders Northern Rhodesia on the east. He made his way up the Shiré river and discovered the great equatorial lake, Nyasa. He also came upon Lake Shirwa, and opened the door to another huge tract of hitherto unknown Africa.

In 1860 Livingstone was instrumental in establishing a missionary station at Ingate in Matabeleland. His good work was supplemented by other men, notably Thomas Baines and Karl Mauch, who revealed the general character of the country then known after the native peoples, Matabeleland, Mashonaland, Barotse-land, and so forth. What really attracted the notice of the world to this portion of the dark continent was the explorers' reports of rich mineral deposits, especially gold.

Lobengula, king of the Matabele and overlord of the Mashonas, began to find himself courted by Europeans of many nationalities for concessions in his territory. Kruger, president of the South African Republic, saw his ambition to extend the borders of the Transvaal thwarted by Britain's occupation of Bechuanaland on the west. Checked again in the east, he turned his attention north to Matabeleland. But here the Portu-

guese had aims, too, and their plan was to join their colonies on the east and west coasts by a continuous belt of territory right across Africa. Then again the Germans, now firmly established in South-West Africa, had visions of extending their domain to the very heart of the continent.

All these hopes and dreams were shattered by the determination of Cecil Rhodes to win the prize for Britain. He moved with speed. His instinct was sure. He had the eye for an opening and seized his opportunity before others had glimpsed the opportunity was there. Already he had made sure of Bechuanaland and visualised a great stretch of British territory extending into Central Africa and even across the whole continent to Egypt.

Rhodes's first step was to induce Lobengula to make no treaties and part with no concessions without the knowledge of the British. The chief required some persuasion because there were other voices heard at his kraal, keen competitors of Britain, who also sought the right to dig for minerals and till the land. But Dr. Jameson, a name famous in South African history, turned the scale. His medical skill had cured an ailing Lobengula, and the chief was grateful and listened to what he had to say. As a result, an agreement was signed on October 30th, 1888, by which other Europeans were excluded by Lobengula from all chance of concessions within his country.

Rhodes's next step was to find how to make the best use of his advantageous position. He began by buying up every outside claim and uniting all British interest into one great new company. Its title was the British South Africa Company, and the capital was a million sterling. Rhodes then sought a charter for his com-

pany, giving as its aims the colonisation of the new territory, expansion of trade, commerce and mining, and the extension northward of the great railway from the Cape. The charter was granted on October 29th, 1889, bestowing upon the Company what were tantamount to sovereign rights. The limits of the company's domain were purposely left undefined by Rhodes, but it became necessary later to come to boundary agreements with Belgium, Germany and Portugal. And here the empire-builder suffered a bitter disappointment, for Germany's acquisition of Tanganyika effectually blocked his great Cape to Cairo scheme.

The first move of the Chartered Company, as it came to be known, was to occupy a part of their domain. An expedition under Colonel Pennefather and the famous traveller, F. C. Selous, proceeded with difficulty over the roadless country into Mashonaland and settled down on the site where Salisbury, the capital of Southern Rhodesia, now stands. Pioneer work was undertaken, subject to interruptions from Boers and Portuguese. However, Dr. Jameson arrived on the scene and easily got the best of the argument with both sets of interrupters. With the Portuguese he made an agreement to build a railway from the new town of Salisbury to the port of Beira in Portuguese East Africa, an enterprise that has conferred immense benefits on Southern Rhodesia. By 1891 the Portuguese had also agreed to the free use of the great waterway of the Zambesi by the new British community.

In two years three thousand colonists had settled in the new country. The soil was tilled, gold was discovered, and the future looked promising. Suddenly, however, a black cloud rose above the horizon and rushed swiftly upon the scene. The Matabele saw in

the British occupation of Mashonaland a serious restriction of their old power. They were not prepared to resign their overlordship without a struggle. Efforts were made to reason with them and persuade them to peace. But the warriors of Lobengula had never been defeated by Africans and did not think they could be defeated by Europeans. Mashonaland was invaded by their impis, and Dr. Jameson, in charge of the infant settlement, was in a quandary whether to attack or no. He wired to Rhodes for instructions, and received the famous answer, "Read Luke xiv, 31." Jameson opened his Bible and read, "Or what king, going to make war against another king, sitteth not down first and consulteth whether he be able with ten thousand to meet him that cometh against him with twenty thousand."

Inspired by this message, Jameson adopted a bold policy. Although his force was slender, he marched straight on Lobengula's kraal at Bulawayo. The Matabele fought bravely, but firearms were new to them and a weapon against which they were helpless. Bulawayo was entered, and Lobengula fled. He was immediately pursued, but a disaster overtook the most energetic of his pursuers. Major Wilson and a small company came up with the chief's escort at the Shangani river. Impetuously they crossed the stream, which suddenly and surprisingly rose in flood. The Matabele, being in overwhelming numbers, saw that the little party was cut off from their main body. Taking advantage of the others' plight, they attacked; and in spite of a gallant resistance, Major Wilson and his men were wiped out. But soon afterwards, in January, 1894, Lobengula died, and the indunas, or chiefs, then submitted to the Company. Matabeleland was subdued and taken under effective

control. The cost, however, had been heavy: 100 lives and well over £100,000 in money.

Matabeleland was thrown open to new settlers, and on the site of Lobengula's kraal the new town of Bulawayo was founded. It is now the largest city in that portion of Rhodesia and the most important commercially in the country.

Progress was not confined to the territory south of the Zambesi. North of the great river the Chartered Company was very active. The most considerable native people in this region are the Barotse, and their king, Lewanika, was persuaded to sign an agreement in 1890 placing his country under the protection of the British. The Company promised not to interfere with the native government, but secured the mineral rights throughout Barotseland, which covers the upper reaches of the Zambesi.

The immense domain of the Chartered Company extended northwards to the southern end of Lake Tanganyika; and after treaties had been made with the natives, the town of Abercorn was founded here and named after the Duke, who was one of the Company's distinguished directors. On the east, too, there were developments. In this region, lying along the western shore of Lake Nyasa, the African Lakes Trading Corporation had been doing splendid work to consolidate British interests, but had experienced troublous times with the natives and Arabs. The western portion of the Corporation's territory was, therefore, made over to the British South Africa Company, while the remainder became in 1891 a British Protectorate, first styled British Central Africa, and now known as Nyasaland.

Each of these forward steps was taken on the advice

and with the guidance of Cecil Rhodes; and a great tribute was paid to his energy and foresight when, on May 3rd, 1895, the name of Rhodesia was chosen for the whole of the Chartered Company's dominions. These were already vast and might have been even vaster but for a very unfortunate incident that occurred in this same year.

Britain had annexed the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland to the Cape and was about to hand over the extensive Bechuanaland Protectorate, with its immense area and great potentialities, to the Chartered Company, when the disastrous Jameson Raid occurred. This was a foolhardy attempt by Dr. Jameson and a small column of 500 men to invade the Transvaal and extract by force from President Kruger an alleviation of the grievances and injustices against which the gold-mining community of Johannesburg had been protesting without avail. The Boers learned of Jameson's approach, ambushed and disarmed his column, and made a complete fiasco of the whole enterprise. The Raid, which was planned by the men on the spot on their own responsibility, aroused the wrath of the Imperial Government, and those implicated found themselves in serious trouble, including Rhodes himself. There was no thought in London now of transferring Bechuanaland to the Company, whose affairs became seriously involved, and even Rhodes the founder was compelled to resign his directorship.

The Raid was followed by another disaster, which was in part connected with it. While Dr. Jameson and the Company's forces were absent on his dangerous escapade, the Matabele thought they saw a chance to rise and throw off the white yoke. They formulated many grievances. They declared that their pride had

been hurt by treatment such as only conquered people suffered after the defeat of Lobengula in 1893. They objected, too, to forced labour in the mines and fields. They declared the British had seized Lobengula's cattle, which were not the chief's personal property, but belonged to the tribe. This last grievance was adjusted—the mistake had been committed in ignorance—but the cattle situation had become acute through another cause. The destructive cattle plague known as rinderpest had made its appearance, and the British attempt to stamp it out by a drastic destruction of the infected cattle was not understood by the natives.

On March 20th, 1896, the storm broke. The Matabele rose and began hostilities by ghastly massacres of the defenceless settlers, without distinction of age or sex. The young town of Bulawayo was threatened by native impis. Worse was to come, for the Mashonas followed the Matabele lead and also rebelled. In a few weeks the whole of Rhodesia south of the Zambesi was afire. Troops were rushed to the scene to reinforce the police and local forces, but the situation was quite out of hand and the fighting was terrible.

Then it was that Rhodes performed the bravest act of his career. He determined to see whether his personal influence could not do more than shot and shell. The Matabele were ensconced in a strong natural fortress in the Matoppos Hills, a compact mountainous region, fifty miles broad and redolent with ageless native tradition. To dislodge them by force would be a most difficult and prolonged undertaking. Rhodes separated himself entirely from the British forces and encamped alone at the foot of the hills, where he was at the mercy of the natives. Word passed through the ranks of the Matabele that he had come to discuss their grievances

with them. They convened a meeting in the depths of the hills, where they were quite immune from attack, and sent a message to Rhodes, as he hoped they would, saying they were prepared to parley with him.

Accompanied by three white men only, Rhodes went unarmed to the palaver with the Matabele chiefs. It is an event that has caught the imagination of Britons everywhere: the little group of white men, surrounded by thousands of native warriors in full war-paint, who needed only a hint from their leaders to fall upon the strangers with their assegais. But Rhodes showed no fear as he put the question to the Matabele: Is it to be peace or war? Such was the force of his personality that one chief after another cast his weapon on the ground as a sign of friendship, and a disastrous struggle was averted. The Mashonas continued the conflict, but were subdued by the following year.

The Jameson Raid and the native rebellions left Rhodesia in a serious condition. All the able-bodied men had joined the colours, and development work was at a standstill. The ravages of war had played havoc with the cattle, and much of what the war had passed over the rinder-pest destroyed. The natives were in a bad way, and many of the white settlers were in little better case. Moreover, the Company was in deep financial straits, and needed more capital if it was to continue. The only bright spot was the re-election of Rhodes to the Board of Directors. At this crisis the Imperial Government stepped in. The armed forces were taken over by the Crown, the Company's constitution was modified, an Imperial Resident Commissioner was appointed, and a Legislative Council was constituted with five nominated and four elected members.

These measures made a quick recovery from the war

possible. Rhodesia went ahead again. The railway from the Cape reached Bulawayo, and the line connecting Salisbury with the Portuguese port of Beira was completed. The gold-mining industry was developed on a large scale, and inoculation was introduced to defeat the rinder-pest. Both Salisbury and Bulawayo received a grant of municipal government; and the future began to look promising indeed, when another major disaster brought Rhodesia to a standstill.

In 1899 the second Boer War broke out and dragged on for three weary years. So many Rhodesians joined the British forces that home industry languished. The turmoil into which South Africa had been thrown effectively killed all enterprise. There was, however, one encouraging factor. The great bulk of the natives in Rhodesia remained quiet and loyal to the British connection. But an irreparable loss occurred on March 26th, 1902, when Rhodesia lost her great founder. Rhodes was buried in the Matoppo Hills, the scene of his dramatic parley with the Matabele chiefs. His tomb stands at a spot from which he himself would often admire the scenery and which he christened "World's View." Here also lie Dr. Jameson, Major Wilson, and others who have given of their best for Rhodesia.

After the Boer War and the death of Rhodes, the white settlers of Southern Rhodesia became dissatisfied with the rule of the Chartered Company and began an agitation for self-government. Mining and agriculture were making great strides, and the time seemed ripe for a more liberal form of administration. The Company, which was exercising sovereign rights, controlled to some extent by the Colonial Office, were prepared to hand over the government of their territory to the

people on terms. These terms the colonist rejected as too stiff, but the Company pointed out that their development of Rhodesia had been a splendid thing for Britain, but of no advantage whatever to their shareholders, since the expenditure had consistently exceeded the receipts.

Before the matter was settled, the Rhodesians were given the opportunity of entering the newly constituted Union of South Africa, which came into existence in 1910. They decided, however, to remain outside and continue to press for a measure of self-government on their own. The result was that Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia parted company. In May, 1911, the elected members on the Legislative Council of Southern Rhodesia were given a majority, and this would have been followed by a transfer of administrative power by the Company had not events in the Union made the Rhodesians wary. The rise of the Dutch Nationalist party caused grave concern, and the colonists on their own initiative voted for the continued rule of the Chartered Company. Actually it was not until 1918 that the Company was bought out by the Crown for a payment of £4,435,000—much less than was asked.

Rhodesia was whole-heartedly for Britain in the Great War. Both whites and natives distinguished themselves by the valuable services rendered. The very last event of the war actually took place on Rhodesian territory when von Lettow, who had put up a brave resistance in German East Africa, surrendered at Kasama in the north three days after the Armistice. Following the war, fresh overtures were made to the Rhodesians to enter the Union, but despite a warm invitation from General Smuts, these were declined. The Boer

Rebellion of 1914 and the separatist policy of the Nationalist Party offended the strongly British sentiments of Rhodesia.

At a general election in May, 1920, the people voted by a large majority for a measure of responsible government for Southern Rhodesia; this was granted by the Imperial Government and came into force on October 1st, 1923. The country is divided into fifteen two-member constituencies; both men and women vote; and there is no colour bar, though the African voters are at present few. The Chartered Company surrendered its rights in the land for a substantial consideration, £2,000,000 of which was raised by Rhodesia herself by means of a loan. The first Prime Minister was Sir Charles Coghlan, who enjoyed the support of all parties in working the new constitution. A time of progress and prosperity has been enjoyed under self-government, good relations established with the Union and the Portuguese, and the confidence and goodwill of the natives won by just consideration of their rights and needs.

Northern Rhodesia meanwhile has remained under the administration of the Crown. The north-eastern and north-western districts were amalgamated in 1911, and on April 1st, 1924, the Chartered Company surrendered its control. Several alternatives have been suggested for the future of the country, both union with Southern Rhodesia and federation with East Africa being debated at length.

The latest proposal for Central Africa is the amalgamation of Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland to form a vast new self-governing dominion under the British flag. This has recently been examined and reported upon by a Royal Commission. While the

Commissioners agreed that eventual union must benefit all parties concerned, they did not consider the time ripe to bring it into immediate effect. The reasons given were the different stages of development reached in the three territories and the disparate policies pursued towards the natives. Nevertheless, it was recommended that a start be made towards building the new dominion by placing Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland under the same Governor and Legislature.

A Dominion of Rhodesia would have an area little short of 400,000 square miles with a population of 70,000 Europeans and 4,300,000 Africans. It would not be easy to join these African territories harmoniously together because they differ so greatly in character and face such divers problems. But the task is not beyond British statecraft. Certain matters would need special and careful attention. Firstly, the well-being of the natives, an end upon which Britain's policy is more determined than it has ever been, would need to be safeguarded. Secondly, an outlet on the sea would have to be found, since the Rhodesias are a wholly inland territory. Thirdly, relations with the Union of South Africa would require wise adjustment. But the scheme has great possibilities, and while progress towards the goal must be slow, to see the first steps taken is welcome and encouraging.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA

Most of the white settlers live in Southern Rhodesia and number nearly 56,000 out of the 70,000 total for all Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Yet Southern Rhodesia is only about half the size of its northern partner. The

country, however, is much more fully explored and developed, and its opportunities have been longer available to the enterprising colonist. It is a healthy land for Europeans, for although sub-tropical, it consists mostly of a high plateau, 3,000 feet above the sea. Its long summer, which continues from September to April, contains some hot days, but is not as a whole oppressive. The short winter—if that term can be used for the genial four months from May to August—is healthy and pleasant.

Mining and agriculture attract the bulk of the Europeans. In the latter industry more settlers are needed, and cheap land and loans on easy terms provide grand opportunities for the ambitious and industrious. The rights in the rich mineral deposits were originally owned by the Chartered Company, but in 1933 the Government bought them out for a sum of £2,000,000. Gold is the principal source of wealth, and since 1890 it is estimated that well over £100,000,000 worth has been produced. Silver, coal, chrome ore and asbestos are excellent secondary lines. In agriculture the staple crops are maize and tobacco. European fruit trees are found to do exceedingly well, and citrus fruits are exported. Rhodesia is a great cattle country also, and a chilled meat industry is progressing rapidly. Railways have enormously assisted development. In addition to the great arterial Cape to Cairo route, there are branches connecting up the important mining and agricultural areas. The Rhodesian system has a mileage of 2,700 miles; and these are supplemented by extensive road motor services.

The two principal towns in Southern Rhodesia are Salisbury, the capital, and Bulawayo, the chief commercial centre. Salisbury is situated on the Mashona-

land plateau, nearly 5,000 feet up, while Bulawayo is 500 feet lower, in Matabeleland, and 300 miles south of Salisbury by rail. Both are good, modern towns, well kept, well run, and efficiently supplied with all essential services. Most of the industrial concerns have their head offices at Bulawayo, while Salisbury contains Government House and the administrative offices. It was in Bulawayo that the Chartered Company had their residence for visiting directors and important visitors. Many of the white people in Rhodesia live in these two centres. Salisbury has a total population of 33,000, of whom 11,500 are Europeans: and Bulawayo, 30,000, of whom 12,500 are Europeans. Bulawayo is on the Cape to Cairo railway, and Salisbury on the line from Bulawayo to Beira.

In many ways the most interesting place in Southern Rhodesia is the ruined city of Zimbabwe. The name itself means "capital," and here at one time was the centre of a civilization that has now disappeared. At what date it flourished has not been determined, but obviously this was once a very populous region. Excavations suggest there was a series of builders, who built in turn on the foundations of their predecessors. There are three sets of ruins at Zimbabwe. Firstly, we have the Elliptical Temple, with its conical tower. Some of its walls are thirty feet high and are constructed of granite, dressed but not cemented. Secondly, there is the Acropolis, which apparently was a kind of fort; and thirdly, the Valley ruins, which have not yet been extensively explored.

Ruins are found in many other parts of Rhodesia. Those at Inyanga are most interesting. The builders of Zimbabwe were after the Rhodesian gold, a fact that has caused some scholars to link them with Solomon:

the people of Inyanga, on the other hand, were agriculturists, as the remains of their irrigation system proves. They may have been Arabs. Fourteen miles from Bulawayo are the Khami ruins. Here the builders were Bantu, their date probably about the 10th century; and it is possible to trace similarities between them and the builders of Zimbabwe.

NORTHERN RHODESIA

The huge territory, which stretches northwards from the Zambesi to the Congo border, is nearly as large as France and Great Britain combined. At present it contains only about 10,000 Europeans, who have settled down within easy distance of the Cape to Cairo railway, which traverses the country from south to north, from the Victoria Falls to Elisabethville in the Congo. The Africans number about 1,400,000; and Barotseland, which accounts for much of the area on the Upper Zambesi, is a black man's reserve.

The chief interest in Northern Rhodesia at the present time is copper. There are vast deposits in the northern part of the territory, and in time it is anticipated with confidence the country will be the largest copper-producer in the world. Already about 145,000 tons are annually exported, and much capital is sunk in the industry. The chief centre is Bwana Mkuba, near the Congo boundary. Zinc, vanadium and cobalt help to swell the mineral output.

Agriculture has a future in Northern Rhodesia. There are large areas suitable either for tillage or grazing. At the moment the chief crop is maize, but tobacco, coffee and wheat are also grown. The head of cattle

probably number about 600,000, five-sixths of them owned by the natives.

Livingstone, on the Zambesi, near the Victoria Falls, was made the administrative capital of Northern Rhodesia in the days of the Chartered Company. In 1929 the Colonial Government decided to have a new and more central capital, and commissioned Dr. Stanley D. Adshead of London University to choose a site and lay out a city. It is now in being and is called Lusaka. On a ridge once covered with stunted trees and thick undergrowth stands a model capital, built of bricks made from the local clay and timber felled within the country. Handsome buildings, stately avenues, tropical gardens, make Lusaka a worthy centre, which can be reached by air in a day from any part of the colony. It symbolises the confidence of the Northern Rhodesians in a great future for their rich and extensive country.

NYASALAND

The British Protectorate that lies along the western shore of the great equatorial lake, Nyasa, and extends for some distance south of it, is a black man's country. There are fewer than 2,000 Europeans in all its 38,000 square miles, while the native population is about 1,650,000. Asiatic inhabitants add about 1,600 to the total. The climate is not healthy for the white man unless he keeps to the highlands; and it is on the elevated ground above the Shiré river that the British settlers are mostly found. The low-lying parts of the Protectorate are extremely hot, and dysentery and black-water fever are a danger to all but natives. However, improved communications have of late years attracted

more and more visitors from South Africa and the Rhodesias during the right season.

Although the headquarters of the Protectorate administration are at Zomba, the chief town is Blantyre, which has a population of 700 whites and 74,000 Africans. One of its features is the handsome, substantially built cathedral, which was the work entirely of native labour. Blantyre is the centre of the coffee plantations. Coffee and tobacco, with tea, cotton and chillies, make up the export trade of Nyasaland. The soil is rich and fertile, and the crops do well. Tobacco especially has made great strides of late years.

Lake Nyasa, drained by the river Shiré, is 350 miles long and on an average about 40 miles broad. It is extraordinarily deep. Its discoverer was David Livingstone, who approached it by way of the Shiré, which flows from it into the Zambesi. This event occurred in 1859. Before that date only a few Portuguese wanderers had penetrated into this region.

Livingstone's reports led to the coming of the missionaries, who in turn were followed by Scottish settlers. Their efforts and subsequent work on Livingstone's part firmly established British interest about Nyasa. The Portuguese were not willing to see the country go to Britain without striking a blow, and in 1889 their Lieutenant Coutine led a force into the territory, intending to occupy Blantyre. A strong protest, however, was sufficient to effect his withdrawal.

Early efforts on the part of the pioneers led to the formation of the African Lakes Trading Corporation. It had a trying career, being chiefly concerned with maintaining its foothold against Arab opposition. In 1891 the western portion of the territory adjoining Northern Rhodesia was handed over to the British

South Africa Company, while a British Protectorate was declared over the lakeside region. This at first was known as British Central Africa, but the name was changed to Nyasaland in 1907.

Britain's rôle in the Protectorate has not been an easy one. Between 1891 and 1895 there was a constant battle between the British authorities and the Arabs for the suppression of the slave trade. The native tribe, the Yaos, also Mohammedans, were other offenders in this respect. Then, between 1896 and 1898, a Zulu tribe called the Angoni claimed the right to dominate and harass the Nyasa natives, and had to be subdued. Following that incident there was a period of peace during which railways were built, minerals surveyed, land developed, all of which conveyed immense benefits on the natives and won their confidence in British rule. During the Great War Nyasaland was actually invaded by Germans from East Africa. There was trouble also with a native chief named Chelembwe, who rebelled. These crises, however, were resolved without serious difficulty, and Nyasaland has since been free to follow peacefully its process of development. It seems likely that its amalgamation with the Rhodesias will be eventually decided upon as in the best interests of all concerned.

CHAPTER V

THE SOUTH AFRICAN PROTECTORATES

A STUDY of the map of the Union of South Africa will reveal certain areas which are almost wholly surrounded by Union territory and yet are not governed from Pretoria and Cape Town. These isolated portions are the Native Protectorates of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland, which remain under the direct control of the Colonial Office in London. One of the most important Empire questions of the day is the future of these countries; and it is a question that is still being debated and has not yet been finally settled.

The South African Government want the Imperial Parliament to transfer to themselves the administration of the three Protectorates. They point out, very truly, that geographically these territories belong to South Africa. They also aver, again with truth, that the Home Government has more or less promised that the transfer shall take place at an early date. On the other hand, it is argued that no transfer should be effected against the wishes of the Africans; and it seems that all three countries would prefer to remain at present under the guidance of Britain rather than link their destinies to the rest of South Africa. No doubt the explanation of this attitude is due, in the first place, to the unhappy relations which the people of the Protectorates have had in the past with the Boers, and in the second place, to the great interest now being shown by Britain in the welfare of the native populations throughout her

African dominions. It seems probable at the moment that South Africans will have to win the confidence of the Bechuanas, the Basutos and the Swazis, before London will feel happy about altering the existing arrangement.

The three Protectorates are each governed by a Resident Commissioner, subordinate to His Majesty's High Commissioner for Basutoland, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and Swaziland, an office that is held concurrently with his own by the High Commissioner in the Union of South Africa for His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom—to give him his new designation. Legislative power resides in the High Commissioner and is exercised by proclamation.

BECHUANALAND

The first Britons to come in contact with Bechuanaland were the missionaries. The London Missionary Society established their principal station at Kuruman in 1818. Almost at once their labours met with considerable success, due, no doubt, to their own zeal, but also to the kindly disposition of the natives, who made them welcome.

In the history of these early days the name that stands out most prominently is that of Robert Moffat. He reached Kuruman in 1821, and began a wonderful work for Christianity and civilization, which was to occupy fifty years of his life. Moffat reduced the Bechuana tongue to writing, a feat of great skill and usefulness, and also translated the Bible for the benefit of the natives.

From Kuruman explorers set out to unravel the

secrets of the then unknown continent of Africa; and the greatest of these was David Livingstone, who arrived as a missionary in 1841 and married Moffat's daughter. His first great journey was through northern Bechuanaland, when he crossed the Kalahari desert in 1849 and discovered Lake Ngami in the north-west. This was the prelude to his other journeys which carried him across Africa and opened the doors of a continent that was until then almost wholly a land of mystery. His work in bringing Bechuanaland under British influence was continued by other pioneers, and a kind of fatherly watch was kept over the people, who were still actually ruled by their own chiefs.

This vague but satisfactory relationship between the British and the Bechuana tribes was disturbed at length by the aggressive attitude assumed by the Dutch of the Transvaal and Orange Free State. They sought to hinder the work of the missionaries and explorers, and attempted to bring the natives under their own control and levy taxes upon them. This policy drew protests from both Britons and Africans, but the protests were not successful in bringing about a change for the better. The Boers made every effort either to bully the natives to submit or to deceive them with fair promises. Pressure became so intolerable that Khama, the chief of the Bamangwato, in northern Bechuanaland, asked for British protection. Other chiefs also petitioned for a protectorate to be declared over their territory. Britain, however, made no move until 1878, when rumours that the Boers were practically making slaves of some of the natives led to the military occupation of southern Bechuanaland.

Britain, however, was not anxious to increase her responsibilities in South Africa. After her half-hearted

efforts in the Boer War of 1880 to 1881, which was brought to an unsuccessful close by the defeat on Majuba, she withdrew her forces from Bechuanaland. The result was anarchy. In vain the natives appealed to a wearied Britain to return, as they were forced to suffer the encroachment of the Boers, who set up in their territory two new Dutch republics: Stellaland, with Vryburg as its capital, and Goshen to the north of it. From the west loomed another danger. The Germans were active in their new possession of South-West Africa, and it was possible that they might join hands with the young Dutch republics and completely shut the door on British expansion to the north.

The threat stirred the far-seeing Cecil Rhodes to action. He proceeded at once to Bechuanaland, but British prestige had fallen so low after Majuba that he found himself unable to take effective steps. However, his great rival, President Kruger, had now arrived on the scene to direct the affairs of the Transvaal, and the Boer leader took a course that made energetic British action inevitable: he attempted to establish a Dutch protectorate over Bechuanaland.

Britain's reply was the dispatch of an expedition under Sir Charles Warren in October, 1884. Kruger met it at the Modder River and tried to argue with Warren. But the British commander was not to be deterred, marched on into Bechuanaland, broke up the Boer republics of Stellaland and Goshen, and formally took the country under British protection. The portion south of the Molopo river was constituted a crown colony under the title of British Bechuanaland, and the remainder was christened the Bechuanaland Protectorate. This return to strong action after the previous hesitation was welcomed, not only by all the British

throughout South Africa, but by the Bechuanas themselves.

In 1891 the Protectorate was extended to its present boundaries and a Resident Commissioner placed in control. When the crown colony of Southern Bechuanaland, 50,000 square miles in area, was annexed to the Cape, it was suggested that the Protectorate should be taken over by Rhodes's new British South Africa Company, which was busy opening up Rhodesia. The natives, however, were opposed to this step, and their wishes were respected. They were afraid that the autonomy which they enjoyed under their own chiefs might be interfered with.

During the difficult period covering the Jameson Raid, which started from Bechuanaland, and the Boer War of 1899-1902, when Mafeking, the present administrative centre, gallantly withstood a long siege, the Bechuana natives remained absolutely loyal to Britain. Through the troublous times since this loyalty has not wavered. The powerful chief, Khama, set an example in this respect to all the other Africans. He died at the age of 93 in 1923; and when the Prince of Wales visited Bechuanaland in 1925, His Royal Highness unveiled, at the native capital of Serowe, a memorial to this fine African leader. This memorial symbolises the happy relations that continue to exist between the British and the Bechuana peoples.

Bechuanaland is larger than Spain and Portugal, and something the same shape—that is to say, nearly square. It has the Transvaal on the east, the Cape on the south, South-West Africa on the west, and Rhodesia on the north. The natives number about 260,000. There are under 2,000 Europeans. The climate is quite healthy and bracing for part of the year, since most of the

country is a large plateau 4,000 feet above sea-level. But there are unhealthy months from February to April, when precautions against malaria are most necessary.

Bechuanaland is a country that is drying up. The rains are irregular and seriously declining. Probably reckless deforestation is the cause. There are signs that once this part of Africa was well watered, but now the Kalahari Desert, covering much of the western region, is sandy and arid. There are vast stretches of thick bush, chiefly acacia; and in the north are marshy depressions where the water is largely salt. Lake Ngami, discovered by Livingstone, is the centre of this area. It has dried up considerably since the explorer's day, and is now little more than a bog of reeds and brackish water. Once, no doubt, it was the central point of a vast, natural irrigation system.

Cattle are the one great industry of the country, which supports over half a million head. The uncertainty of the rainfall makes crop-growing a hazardous enterprise, though certain grains, such as Kaffir corn, appear to surmount the handicap. All that most British people see and know of the Protectorate is gained on the train journey from Cape Town through Vryburg and Mafeking to Bulawayo in Rhodesia.

BASUTOLAND

Basutoland is an island of native territory completely surrounded by the Union Provinces of Natal, Cape Province, and the Orange Free State. About the size of Belgium, it has a population of 560,000 natives, one quarter of whom are Christians. There are also 1,500 European and 1,600 Asiatic and coloured inhabitants,

but the country is reserved for the Africans, and white settlers are only admitted in exceptional circumstances. Under the British Resident Commissioner, the Basutos enjoy a considerable measure of self-government. There is a national council, called the Pitso, which meets every year. It consists of 100 members, 95 of whom are nominated by the native chiefs and only five by the British administration. The Pitso is an advisory body only, but it puts forward the native point of view, and its suggestions are mostly accepted.

Basutoland is a beautiful country. Not for nothing has it been called the Switzerland of South Africa. Most of it is occupied by the Maluti Mountains, which are part of the famous Drakensburg. Six thousand feet above the sea, the surface consists of rugged mountain chains interspersed with lovely valleys choked with luxuriant vegetation. The flora so familiar in the Alps spreads its beauty everywhere. Tumbling streams and mighty waterfalls are found among these austere hills and giant precipices. The magnificent Maletsunyane Falls leap 670 feet to the cauldron below. Thaba Bosigo is famous among the mountains, not only for its grand and forbidding appearance—it is almost inaccessible—but also for its historical associations, for here the Basutos have concentrated their resistance in many a war against their enemy invaders. In winter the charm of this country is enhanced when crest beyond crest is covered with glistening snow.

The Basutos occupy themselves in many useful ways. Their soil is claimed to be the best grain-producer in all South Africa, and good advantage is taken of it. The abundance of grass makes for a thriving pastoral industry, and cattle, sheep and goats find conditions much to their liking. Mohair and wool of the highest

quality are among the most valuable of the exports, which also include wheat, cattle, and hides. Famous for its strength and endurance is the Basuto pony, with its short legs and strong back. It is sure-footed among the rocks, and is said to be descended from some Shetlands, which were imported into the Cape about 1840 and escaped to the mountains. In addition to these Basutos living at home, there are about 70,000 exiles working in the gold mines of the Rand and in other parts of South Africa. The capital of Basutoland is Maseru, which to-day is connected with the railway system of the Union.

Although Europeans are not encouraged to settle among the Basutos, the climate of the protectorate is pleasant enough for them. Both white and black enjoy good health, and malaria is almost unknown. An interesting feature is the slower change from one season to another compared with the rest of South Africa. Spring and autumn get something of a showing, whereas in neighbouring parts of the continent the plunge from summer into winter, and vice-versa, is often startling.

The Basutos have not been in possession of their country for very long. At the beginning of last century the whole of this part of Africa was devastated by Chaka and his marauding, bloodthirsty Zulus. The present Basuto nation owes its existence to the great qualities of leadership in the founder, Moshesh. In 1824 this young chieftain established himself in the impregnable rock fortress of Thaba Bosigo. There, seven years later, he put up a triumphant defence against Mosilikatze, the founder of the Matabele. This success established his reputation and won for him a respect almost as great as that enjoyed by Mosilikatze himself.

Moshesh welcomed the missionaries into his kingdom

and consistently supported their efforts, which accounts for the large proportion of Christians among the Basutos to-day. The chief was not so pleased to see the Boers arrive, when large numbers of those who had trekked from the Cape settled down on land that he claimed as his own. He attacked their cattle and put up what resistance he could, but he was wise enough to realise that he was incapable of stopping encroachments upon his territory without enlisting other white men in his support. Therefore he agreed in 1843 that Basutoland should be constituted a native state under British protection.

Under the treaty signed with Moshesh, Britain considered herself responsible for the internal condition of Basutoland. This, unfortunately, was the reverse of satisfactory. The African loves a good fight, and endless quarrels about land give him all the excuse he needs. The British dispatched a force to Basutoland in 1851 to intervene and restore peace, but it was unlucky enough to get the worst of the argument. Another expedition was sent in the following year, but it was not very successful either. However, Moshesh was no fool and realised he could not defy the British indefinitely, and so promised to try and keep his people in order and stop their raids upon farms and kraals.

Britain renounced sovereignty over the Boers, who had settled beyond the Orange River, in 1854, and the Orange Free State came into existence. There were disputes between the Boers and Basutos about the boundary dividing the two states. Britain acted as mediator, but the settlement was only temporary. With the British trying to limit their commitments, the Boer encroachment became more and more daring, until Moshesh found himself little more than a vassal of the

Dutch Republic. In these trying circumstances he made another appeal to Britain, saying, "Let me and my people rest and live under the large folds of the flag of England before I am no more." Such a request could not be ignored, and Basutoland was annexed on March 12th, 1868, the Boers being politely required to leave the country.

The Dutch of the Orange Free State resented this step. However, they were at last persuaded to come to a full agreement on the boundary and other matters, an agreement known as the Treaty of Aliwal North. By its provisions the Boers received a fertile strip of Basutoland west of the Caledon river, to which the name of the Conquered Territory had been given. The remainder of the country was to be recognised as part of the British dominions in South Africa.

In 1870, Moshesh died. He was a great loss to the Basutos. Few Kaffirs have been endowed with such high intellectual gifts, for his foresight and judgment were a match for the European minds with whom he had to deal. For fifty years he ruled his people well, his clever diplomacy steering them through many an awkward situation. He could be strong as well as tolerant, and his wisdom was emphasised by the lack of it in his successor, Moirosi, who rose in rebellion in 1879, and was defeated with the loss of his own life. Internal quarrels followed this disaster, which reduced the country to a chaotic condition.

Britain was really worried what to do with Basutoland, now that she had rescued it from the Free State Boers. She tried annexing it to the Cape, an unpopular move that instigated the Moirosi rising. She attempted to apply the policy, which had succeeded in other parts of South Africa, of disarming the natives. But in

Basutoland this was peculiarly difficult to carry out, and led to what the history book calls "the gun war." Actually, the Basutos were never wholly disarmed, for Sir Hercules Robinson intervened and put an end to the attempt to take their weapons from them. A form of self-government, still under the jurisdiction of the Cape, was the next experiment, but this was satisfactory to neither side. Finally, the Basutos appealed to the Imperial Government to take them under their direct control, and the Cape authorities were so glad to be rid of them that they willingly agreed to bear some of the expenses of administration.

From 1884, then, Basutoland came under the Colonial Office. Native laws and customs were retained, and the chiefs, descendants of Moshesh, received authoritative backing. Moshesh's son, Letsie, and his successor, Lerothodi, worked harmoniously with the British Resident Commissioner. The Basutos turned from war to agricultural pursuits; trade flourished, and missionaries preached the gospel of peace and held aloft the torch of learning. The system worked well. How satisfied the Basutos were with it may be gathered from the visit of Sir Alfred Milner in 1898. He was received with great honour, 15,000 Basuto horsemen acting as his escort. At Maseru he met the chiefs, who expressed their gratitude for the protection and beneficent rule of Queen Victoria. A further proof of Basuto contentment was given on the outbreak of the Boer War in 1899, when at a great meeting with the Commissioner the Basutos declared their unswerving loyalty to the Throne.

Basuto neutrality was respected by both sides during the fighting. This was followed by a period of peace and prosperity which even the Kaffir rebellion in Natal

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in 1906 failed to disturb. The loyal chief, Lerothodi, a brave and gifted ruler, died in 1905, and his successor, Griffith, proved during the Great War a true supporter of the British cause. Many of his subjects served in the African campaigns, and 1,400 Basutos came with the South African contingent to Europe.

Since the war the Basutos have shown more than once that they are perfectly satisfied with their present lot and want no governmental changes. They told Prince Arthur of Connaught in 1921 and the Prince of Wales in 1925 that they did not wish to be incorporated in the Union of South Africa, but desired to live under their own smooth-running system of home rule. On whether they remain of the same mind will depend the future of their country.

SWAZILAND

Many peoples of South Africa heaved a sigh of relief when Chaka, the ferocious and all-conquering leader of the Zulus, was assassinated. The decline of the Zulu power meant that once again other tribes had a chance to live their own lives. Like the Basutos, the Swazis established their independence and founded the present state. In their terror of the old enemy they had allied themselves with the white man; and with Britain's annexation of Natal in 1843, they felt they were safe at last from those terrible raiding Zulu impis, which left nothing but a trail of death and devastation behind them.

Swaziland lies just north of Natal, in which Zululand is now incorporated, and has Portuguese East Africa to the east and the Transvaal to the north and west. The

propinquity of the South African Republic put the Swazis in an awkward position after the Boer success over the British at Majuba in 1881. Great pressure was brought to bear upon the Swazi chief, Umbandine, to have nothing further to do with Britain, but to place himself under the Transvaal. Umbandine realised that the Boer aim was to obtain control of his country and appealed to the British for protection. But Britain was tired of her incessant troubles and difficulties in South Africa, and declined Umbandine's request, though it was repeated more than once. The result was that Boer penetration into Swazi territory reached alarming proportions, and concessions of all kinds were extracted from the Swazi chief, who felt himself unable on his own to resist. The Boers' real reason for concentrating on the mastery of Swaziland was their need of an outlet on the sea, for Umbandine's country lay across the road from the Transvaal to the Indian Ocean.

Umbandine died in 1889, and power came into the hands of Naba Tsibeni, or Labottsibeni, the Queen Regent, a remarkable woman, who successfully guided the destiny of her people through a most critical period. Wisely Naba Tsibeni sided with the British against the Dutch in South Africa during the war of 1899 to 1902. For a time the fighting brought her country very near to anarchy, but the Queen's request for annexation saved the situation. At first Swaziland was administered with the Transvaal, but in 1906 was given a Resident Commissioner of its own under the High Commissioner for South Africa. When the Union was formed in 1910, Swaziland remained under the direct control of the Imperial Parliament, and is still so governed. Naba Tsibeni died in 1925, the year the Prince of Wales visited Swaziland.

The protectorate is rather larger than Yorkshire, and has a population of about 2,800 Europeans and 154,000 natives. It is a pleasant, well-watered country, with a climate which, though warm, is healthy and agreeable in the higher regions. Swaziland is sharply divided into three distinct portions. First, there is the mountain region of the west, which is 4,000 feet above the sea; next, in the centre and some 2,000 feet lower, is the Middle Veldt; and lastly, on the east and bounded by the Lebombo mountains, is the Low Veldt, which nowhere exceeds 1,000 feet in elevation. It is on this Low Veldt that climatic conditions are not so good and malaria is prevalent.

Swaziland is primarily a grazing country. The number of cattle is 400,000, and a good export trade in slaughter-oxen has been built up. The pasture is so good that in winter about 300,000 sheep are brought down from the high tablelands of the Transvaal. On the whole the soil is fertile, and the staple product, maize, is extensively grown. Other crops do well, particularly tobacco and cotton, which are profitable items for export, cotton having made encouraging progress of late years. There are minerals of many kinds, the most valuable at the moment being tin. In addition to these activities, many Swazis leave their country to work in the gold mines of Johannesburg.

Swaziland is governed from the capital, Mbabane, a small but attractive place, which has a fine location overlooking the Middle Veldt at a height of 4,000 feet above sea level. Mbabane is the centre of an excellent system of motor transport, which has been greatly extended of recent years and now links up the most important points in the country. With Bechuanaland and Basutoland, Swaziland is now waiting anxiously to

learn what its future is to be : whether it will remain under the direct control of the Colonial Office in London as an independent unit, or be merged in the Union of South Africa, of which it is geographically a part.

CHAPTER VI

EAST AFRICA

ZANZIBAR

THE history of the compact mass of British territory in East Africa, consisting of the Protectorates of Zanzibar and Uganda, Kenya Colony and Protectorate, and the Mandated Territory of Tanganyika, is, in its early chapters, the story of the dealings between the European powers and the Sultanate of Zanzibar.

The first Europeans to come in contact with this part of the Dark Continent were the ubiquitous Portuguese during the late years of the 15th century. They found the Arabs in possession and long established at various places along the coast. These Arab settlements, which exercised political influence and dominion over the African natives, are spoken of as the Zenj Empire. It is probable, however, that they were not an empire in the modern sense of the term and were never united under a single ruler. Kilwa, or Quiloa, was regarded as the capital of the Arab colonies, and Zanguebar, or the land of the Zenj, later corrupted to Zanzibar by East African traders, became gradually the name for all the coastal country.

The Arab power had declined by the time the Portuguese arrived on the scene, and was no match for the European. Kilwa was captured in 1505, and Mombasa, to this day a seaport of great importance, at the same time. But Portugal was unable to establish a stable

rule over the region. Frequent revolts shook her hold upon it; and, finally, fierce attacks by the Turks from the sea and furious onslaughts by the African people of the Zambesi, the Zimbabwes, led to the abandonment of her suzerainty.

The wreck of the Portuguese dominion was an invitation to the Arabs to reassert their old supremacy, and during the 17th century the East African coast came beneath the sway of the Imams of Muscat, who delegated their powers in Africa to *valis* or viceroys. Zanzibar Island, rather larger than Hertfordshire, which lies a little distance off the coast, was occupied in 1730. These viceroys were able to consolidate their position and govern almost as independent rulers. Many had practically ceased to acknowledge the overlordship of the Imams of Muscat when Sayyid Said brought them all to heel and firmly re-established his authority. Mombasa, now the chief city on the coast, resisted and was only taken in the end by treachery in 1837.

Sayyid Said paid Mombasa out by making the town of Zanzibar the capital of his African dominions. It was an excellent choice, but at the same time rather a surprising one, for Zanzibar was then a place of no importance whatsoever. Yet the Imam was wise enough to appreciate its peculiar geographical assets and the advantage of a spacious bay of safe and deep water. His judgment and foresight have been fully vindicated. During the 19th century Zanzibar rose quickly to a position which enabled it, by gathering the trade routes to India, Arabia, Persia and Madagascar into its hand, to dominate the commerce of East Africa. There is an Arab proverb which runs, "When you play on the flute at Zanzibar, all Africa as far as the lakes dances."

The city, the largest in East Africa, is most picturesque

with its mosques, round towers, and white, flat-topped houses, the latter having black, wooden doors, elaborately carved, which contrast strongly with their glistening walls. Though many of the streets where the poorer native workers of many races live are mean and dirty, the gardens bring colour to the city, notably with the gay red of the acacias. The palace of the Sultan stands out prominently among other imposing buildings, governmental and ecclesiastical. Bazaars are numerous, and one can still view the site of the old slave-market. Although Zanzibar has benefited by the export of cloves, in which trade the island has practically a monopoly, it is as a clearing-house and transhipment centre for the mainland that its great prosperity has been won. In recent years its position of pre-eminence has been challenged by the rise of some of the mainland ports, Mombasa once again revealing ambitions towards the leadership amongst East African cities.

In 1856 Sayyid Said died, and his dominions were divided between his two sons. The African part fell to Majid, who was succeeded in 1870 by his younger brother, Bargash Ibn Sayid. Bargash, known throughout the world as the Sultan of Zanzibar, claimed suzerainty over a vast territory stretching from the Rovuma river, the northern boundary of Portuguese East Africa, in the south, to the borders of Abyssinia in the north, and from the Indian Ocean on the east to the great lakes on the west. This claim could not be substantiated by effective occupation, a fact that placed Bargash in a weak strategic position when it came to bargaining with the European powers, who cast covetous ideas on East Africa with a view to trade and colonisation. The outcome was that the Sultan saw his kingdom drastically dismembered and on his death in 1888

handed on but a fraction of his inheritance to his successor, Sayyid Khalifa.

Britain was the first of the imperial powers to realise the importance of Zanzibar. Her position in India, no doubt, accounted for this. By 1862 her influence with the Sultan was paramount, and she was able to persuade France, the rival she most feared at the time, to enter into a treaty with her which recognised the independence of Zanzibar. The British position was strengthened by the excellent work of John Kirk, the companion of Livingstone on his later journeys, who watched over his country's interests in the sultanate for twenty-one years, latterly in the rôle of consul-general. Kirk, having safeguarded the situation from French interference, was able later to checkmate the hostile ambitions of Germany. He persuaded the Sultan to abolish the slave trade and to promise to cede no territory to other nations. So greatly had Bargash come to rely upon British advice and guidance that in 1877 he offered William Mackinnon, chairman of the British India Steam Navigation Company, a lease for 70 years of his dominions on the African mainland, even including certain rights of sovereignty. It was a wonderful opportunity, but the Government at home were anxious to limit their African commitments and declined to give Mackinnon their support. The offer consequently lapsed.

The loss was soon to be regretted. In spite of the fact that British influence had long been paramount at Zanzibar, certain German traders had managed to establish themselves in the island and were making their presence felt. Through these traders glowing accounts of expansionist possibilities in East Africa reached the Fatherland. There had recently arisen in Germany a

society for German colonisation. It was composed mostly of young men and aimed to foster and feed the newly awakened German appetite for possessions overseas. This was so great a departure from the familiar policy of the German Empire, which had habitually looked to European conquest and not to colonisation for strength and power, that no countries, least of all Britain, took Germany seriously as an imperial rival. By 1884, however, it became evident that she was to make her bid for a place in the African sun. The revelation was one of the foremost reasons for the calling of the famous Berlin Conference to lay down the rules for the partition of the African continent among the powers of Europe.

Eleven days before the Conference met—that is on November 4th, 1884—three young Germans, disguised as mechanics, arrived at Zanzibar. They were in reality Dr. Karl Peters, President of the German Colonisation Society, and two other of its members. They established contact with the German traders in Zanzibar city, whose increasing numbers and persistent efforts to supplant British influence by German had alarmed Consul-General Kirk and prompted him to take strong measures to counter their many plots and secret activities. The young pioneers had come to the conclusion that the best way to secure colonies for Germany was to take them first and argue about them afterwards. Very shrewdly they decided that a *fait accompli* would accomplish more than formal notice and application.

The only equipment the ambitious empire-builders had brought with them for their task was a sheaf of blank treaty forms and a bundle of German flags. With the connivance of the German traders in Zanzibar, the three young men crossed from the island to the

mainland, intent on making treaties with the native chiefs and securing large tracts of territory for exploitation. Their action was entirely unofficial. The German Government was participating, and participating loyally, in the important conference at Berlin.

Karl Peters and his companions pushed inland from the coast at a point exactly opposite Zanzibar Island, and reached a place called Mbusini, which is some fifty miles from the sea in what is now the mandated territory of Tanganyika. Here they concluded a treaty with the native ruler, hoisted the German flag, and declared their acquisition to be independent of Zanzibar. This occurred on November 19th, 1884. The pioneers then pushed on farther and proceeding by the Wami river, reached the mountainous district of Usagara. Again treaties were signed, and again the German flag was raised. By December, Peters was back again at Zanzibar with documents in his possession which purported to cede 60,000 square miles of territory to the German Colonisation Society. Without wasting a moment, he returned to Berlin to try and obtain official recognition and backing for his new colonies.

When the news of what had occurred reached Bargash Ibn Sayyid, he became very excited, declared that all East Africa up to the Great Lakes was the dominion he had inherited from his fathers, and announced his intention of proceeding forthwith to Berlin to lodge an energetic protest in person against the theft of his property. He was dissuaded from taking so rash and useless a course of action by the quiet and calm counsel of John Kirk, but he was not prevented from dispatching an armed force to the disputed territory, although he was prevailed upon to withdraw it before any clash occurred. However, a larger expedition was sent under

General Lloyd Mathews, the Commander-in-Chief of the Sultan's army, to occupy the Kilimanjaro district and prevent a repetition of the events in Usagara.

Britain's attitude in persuading Sultan Bargash to acquiesce in the German appropriation of his territories certainly seems hard to understand. It was due to an entire misreading of the German intentions in this part of the world. In spite of the successful activities of Karl Peters, Britain could not bring herself to believe that it was anything more than rather misguided enterprise on the part of individuals, and expected that official Germany would promptly disown it. It was a surprise then, if not something of a shock, when the German Emperor informed Britain and Zanzibar in February, 1885, that he accepted suzerainty of the territories and had taken them under his protection.

Even the issue of the Kaiser's "Charter of Protection" did not unduly disturb Lord Granville, who held the post of Foreign Secretary under Mr. Gladstone. He was complaisant enough to believe that it would be to everyone's advantage to have Germany in East Africa. He expected to receive German co-operation in the suppression of the slave trade, and thought Britain would have a useful collaborator in opening up the commercial possibilities of the country and spreading the benefits of European civilisation through a backward region. He even went so far as to restrict the activities of Britain's own energetic pioneers until he was assured by Prince Bismarck that they were not interfering with German plans and policies. No doubt this great anxiety to think well of Germany's intentions was due in great part to the difficulty in which the Gladstone Ministry found itself in Egypt. This was the year of the fall of Khartoum and the death of General

Gordon; and Britain felt that she had as much on her hands as she could conveniently cope with.

The British Government may have looked at East Africa through rose-coloured spectacles, but the British pioneers, who were on the spot, had an entirely different idea of the German programme. And the pioneers were right. Collaboration and co-operation were not part of the German plan. A great new German dominion from Mozambique to Abyssinia and from the sea to the lakes was the high goal, and to this end more and more treaties were signed with African chiefs, and more and more extravagant grew the claims to unfettered possession. A protectorate was declared over the territory acquired by Karl Peters and known as Usagara, now part of Tanganyika; another protectorate was declared over Witu, a coastal territory north of the Tana river and in the centre of what is now the British Kenya Protectorate; other treaties were made with the natives to cover the Kilimanjaro district. This last was particularly galling to the British pioneers, for the year before H. H. Johnson had himself concluded treaties in the interests of Britain, but could progress no further as all official backing was withheld. The Sultan complained bitterly about the carving of his kingdom ~~into~~ German possessions, but the appearance of a strong naval squadron off Zanzibar and the absence of any determined action by Britain left him no alternative but to submit.

However, Germany was not to have her own way much longer. In June, 1885, Gladstone fell from power and was succeeded by Lord Salisbury, whose foreign policy showed a welcome renewal of vigour in support of the British cause, not only in East Africa, but elsewhere. Germany was given to understand quite

clearly that Britain was determined to protect her position and interests in the Zanzibar dominions; whereupon she, as well as France, consented to take part with Britain in setting up an international commission, whose object was to determine what lands in fact belonged to the Sultan of Zanzibar and what lands were outside his effective authority and available therefore for European enterprise.

The commission of the three powers came to the conclusion that the Sultan's authority was not effective over all the vast territory which he claimed as his rightful heritage. They decided that his rule extended over Zanzibar, Pemba, and the neighbouring islands, and over the East African mainland for a depth of ten miles inland from the Rovuma river, the Portuguese boundary, to Kipini at the mouth of the river Tana, in the centre of the present Kenya Protectorate, with a few, disconnected places north of that limit. The remainder of East Africa, that is to say, the great territories between the Sultan's coastal strip and the Great Lakes, were deemed to be open to European penetration.

The limits of the Sultan of Zanzibar's own domain being thus determined, the next step was to divide the territory available for trade and colonisation into spheres of interest among the powers. France made no major claims in this region; and the important task, therefore, was the division of the territorial opportunities between Britain and Germany. The line was drawn from the mouth of the Umba river, opposite Pemba Island, to the centre of Victoria Nyanza. Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain of Africa, was left within the German sphere, which extended southwards to the northern border of Portuguese East Africa. This corresponded roughly to the present territory of Tanganyika. The British sphere

spread northwards from the common frontier to the Tana river, covering a large part of what is now Kenya Colony. The sadly truncated kingdom of Zanzibar was then recognised as independent by Germany, as France and Britain had done twenty-three years earlier.

This agreement with Germany revived hope in the breasts of those British individualists who had been playing a lone hand for Britain in discouraging circumstances. Now that the Government had made a stand for British East African interests, they were prompted once more to take advantage of the opportunities confronting them. Sir William Mackinnon, who had been compelled ten years earlier to refuse the Sultan's offer of a lease over his mainland territories because the authorities in London refused to support him, now took fresh action. In May, 1887, he formed the British East Africa Association, and used his influence with the Sultan to obtain a concession of Zanzibar's ten mile coastal strip from the Umba river to Kipini, that is, the coast lands bordering the British sphere. In addition, by signing treaties with the native chiefs, Mackinnon obtained further concessions over territories stretching 200 miles inland. With these gains to his credit, he applied to the government for a charter. This was granted in September, 1888, and the Association became the Imperial British East Africa Company. The initial letters of the words constituting the Company's title were taken to form the name Ibea, which was bestowed on the territory under its control.

Bargash Ibn Sayyid died in 1888, and was succeeded by his brother, Sultan Khalifa. This ruler was approached by the German East Africa Company, who had watched every move of Mackinnon and the British company, for a similar lease of that part of the coastal

strip which lay along the east of the German sphere of influence, south of the Umba river. This was granted, but led at once to difficulties for the Germans, who as yet had little experience of colonisation and did not understand how to deal with the people of the Orient so effectively as the British, by this date established in India for nearly three centuries. The arrogance and want of tact, so characteristic of the German national character, led to a revolt on the part of the coastal Arabs, whose power had been lost to the Europeans. The trouble reached such dimensions that the company officials were unable to deal with it, and the imperial authorities had to come to their rescue. Prince Bismarck dispatched a Captain Hermann Wissman with adequate forces to regain control of an ugly situation. Wissman proved to be a proconsul of exceptional ability, who knew how to develop the resources of the country and at the same time conciliate the natives. After he had restored order and was still in office as commissioner, the Sultan's coastal strip south of the Umba, over which the German company had obtained a lease, was bought outright for £200,000. The territory was later declared a German Colony under the name of German East Africa, and Wissman himself came out again to act as a very successful governor.

North-east of the British and German spheres of influence and between Victoria Nyanza and Albert Nyanza, lay the native kingdom of Uganda, which was to become a bone of contention between the two colonising powers. As early as 1877 Protestant missionaries had visited the country at the invitation of King Mutesa. These were followed two years later by French Roman Catholics. The Christians found themselves strongly opposed by the Arabs of Zanzibar, who were trying

their hardest to win the people of Uganda for Islam. In 1884 Mutesa died and was succeeded by his son, Mwanga, who was alarmed at the rate his people were being weaned from their old customs and persuaded to adopt European ideas. He determined to stamp out Christianity with its anti-slavery cry. His decision led to much martyrdom among his own converted subjects, and involved the murder of Bishop Hannington, who was attempting to enter Uganda and reason with Mwanga. This crime opened a period of bitter religious feuds, in which Protestant, Catholic and Moslem were opposed to each other, with the native ruler at times against them all.

While these troubles were at their height, explorers had made the country better known to Europeans, and agents of the British East Africa Company were investigating its agricultural and commercial possibilities with a view to treating with the natives for further concessions. Eventually Mwanga, who found himself in a position of increasing difficulty and insecurity, and had indeed been forced to flee from his capital of Mengo, wrote to F. J. Jackson of the British Company for assistance, offering to accept the protection of the British flag. This letter fell into the hands of Karl Peters, the same Karl Peters who had won German East Africa for his country, and who now had similar ambitions concerning Uganda. Peters went straight to Mwanga and was able to persuade the chief to accept German instead of British protection, which seemed to promise well from the evidence of the effective, but unofficial, armed forces which Karl Peters had brought with him. The British were at a distinct disadvantage, for Jackson had received definite orders from home not to enter Uganda territory. However, on news of the German

coup reaching the Company, Jackson proceeded to Mengo only to find Mwanga deaf to his proposals. This situation greatly disturbed the British Company, and Captain F. D. Lugard, later to make a great reputation as a colonial administrator, was sent to Uganda to try to improve the situation.

Local difficulties were, however, cleared up by a comprehensive agreement reached between Britain and Germany in July, 1890. Lord Salisbury came to a thorough understanding on important colonial questions with our German rivals. In return for the cession of Heligoland, Germany recognised a British Protectorate over Zanzibar and all the Sultan's dominions with the exception of the coastal strip bordering her own sphere of influence, which later she purchased. Further, she agreed to resign her protectorate over Witu, which was very inconveniently situated near the territory the British Company had leased from the Sultan. Finally, she acknowledged that Uganda was contained within the British sphere.

It would be difficult to over-estimate the value and importance of this settlement. The final definition of the British and German spheres laid the bogey of competition and enabled each power to devote itself peacefully to the development of its respective territory. Britain acquired a solid gain in having the German threat to her position in the Nile Valley removed. On the other hand, Rhodes's great dream of a continuous chain of British territories from the Cape to Egypt was shattered. Germany stolidly refused to countenance this plan. Even when Britain tried to realise her ambition by bargaining with Belgium for a strip of the Congo to link Uganda with Northern Rhodesia, she intervened to squash it. Not until she lost her East African posses-

sion to Britain at the end of the Great War did the all-red route become an actuality.

Although freed from all anxiety arising from German trade competition and rival political aims, the British East Africa Company enjoyed anything but a prosperous time after 1890. In Uganda Captain Lugard found himself faced with disconcerting intrigues, for French opposition had taken the place of German. The Company's obligation to stamp out the slave traffic put an unbearable strain upon its resources. The great project of a railway from Mombasa to Victoria Nyanza was beyond its powers to undertake. Appeal for assistance was made to the Home Government, but although the Prime Minister, Lord Salisbury, was in favour, Parliament refused supplies. Moreover, the introduction of free trade into East Africa deprived the Company of the duties which constituted the major portion of its income. There was no alternative, therefore, but to withdraw Lugard and his force from Uganda on account of the expense of keeping them there, and indeed the evacuation of Ibea itself was seriously contemplated. At this there were strong public protests, and at last the Government was constrained to act. Sir William Mackinnon, the Company's founder, had died; and there was no sensible alternative to transferring the administration to the Crown. Thus in 1895 Ibea became British East Africa, and a separate protectorate was declared over Uganda.

The peace of both British and German East Africa was broken by native risings, but the relations with the African peoples in the British sphere was far more satisfactory than those in the German. In 1896 the Arabs of the coast made a last and desperate, but unavailing, effort to throw off British domination, and regain their

old authority. In the next year there was a dangerous rebellion in Uganda, which was suppressed with difficulty. In the German section a very serious revolt broke out in the Kilimanjaro district. This was due to the harsh treatment of the Africans by Karl Peters, who had now received the appointment of governor of the colony. Order was restored, but only with the utmost difficulty; and in spite of all that Peters had done for German interests in East Africa, he was disgraced and lost his commission. In 1905 came an even more serious rebellion. The Bantu tribes refused to submit to restriction on their liberties and forced labour on the plantations, on which their German masters insisted. In this same year Germany was confronted with the rebellion of the native Hereros in South-West Africa, and it is possible the two risings were connected. In East Africa a terrible campaign was waged against the rebels, in which no less than 120,000 men, women and children were massacred. The result, however, was the adoption of a more enlightened and humane policy toward the native peoples in the African possessions of Germany.

On the outbreak of war in 1914 the peace of East Africa was once again destroyed. In this instance the advantage lay with Britain, for British sea-power prevented any effective aid reaching the overseas possessions from Germany. Although the German raiding cruiser, *Königsberg*, created great excitement in Zanzibar in September, 1914, by sinking the old British warship, *Pegasus*, then at anchor in the roadstead, the coastlands of German East Africa were quickly subdued, and the defending forces driven into the interior. Here the few hundred Germans and their native allies resisted stoutly under their lion-hearted leader, Captain von Lettow-Vorbeck. Taking advantage of the dense nature of the

country and the difficulties of an invading force confronted by fever and forest, swamp and mountain, they were able to avoid capture by the pursuing British forces under General Smuts. Although they were forced to abandon the colony and escape into Portuguese territory, they did not lay down their arms until three days after the armistice, when actually they stood upon Rhodesian soil.

After the war there were changes made in the administration of East Africa. The conquered German Colony was transferred to Britain's control under a mandate from the League of Nations and renamed Tanganyika Territory. The British East Africa Protectorate became Kenya Colony, and the original coastal strip leased from the Sultan of Zanzibar became the Kenya Protectorate. Uganda remains a distinct protectorate, but there is a customs union with Kenya. The question of federating the East Africa dominions has been given careful consideration, but the scheme is not considered practicable in present circumstances. The various territories are in different stages of development and require different treatment. Their character, aims, and activities are so diverse that a common working agreement would be difficult to devise. Moreover, the future of Tanganyika has been uncertain in view of strong demand of Herr Hitler's government for its return to Germany.

The present Sultan of Zanzibar is His Highness Sir Khalifa bin Harub, who succeeded in 1911. Ruler has not always peacefully succeeded ruler. On the death of Sayyid Ali in 1893, there were three claimants to the throne. One of them, Khalid bin Bargash, defied the British and seized the palace. Sir Lloyd Mathews, then First Minister of Zanzibar, was able to oust him on this

occasion; but three years later he repeated the coup and placed the palace in a state of defence to resist expulsion. Reason availed nothing, and only the guns of the British Navy drove him out. But this, unfortunately, necessitated the destruction of the palace with 500 casualties. The misguided Khalid fled and was later deported to German East Africa.

The only parts of the old Zanzibar dominions remaining under the Sultan's government to-day are the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. These measure 640 and 380 square miles in area respectively and give him about 250,000 subjects. Nominally he is still ruler of the Kenya Protectorate, the coastal strip, ten miles deep, on the mainland, which borders the British Colony of Kenya. Although Zanzibar is officially described as a protectorate, it differs from the other protectorates of the Empire in its administration, which more nearly resembles that of the Native States of India. The Sultan acts on the advice of a British First Minister, and foreign affairs are in the hands of the Imperial Parliament.

Although the territories of Zanzibar have sadly diminished in the last fifty years, and although the great port of Zanzibar may be surrendering some of its pre-eminence to Mombasa, yet the Sultan's islands have a valuable asset which cannot be taken from them. Zanzibar and Pemba are responsible for over 80 per cent. of the world supply of cloves. Some 48,000 acres are estimated to be devoted to this industry, and the number of spice-bearing trees are probably about three million. As a good tree will yield from 5 lbs. to 6 lbs. of cloves, some idea of the output may be gained. The plantations are mostly owned by Arabs, though some natives also are landlords. The labour is supplied generally by the Swahilis, the coastland people, who

are a strange mixture of Africa and Asia. The Europeans play no part in the clove industry. The hot, moist, tropical climate of Zanzibar is more than they can stand, the special danger to their health arising from the night dews which saturate the rank vegetation.

In cloves Zanzibar city will always have an item of export which will keep its port busy and prosperous. A third of the crop goes to the Dutch East Indies where it is mixed with tobacco for the manufacture of cigarettes. Another third is taken by the Indian spice market; and the remainder goes chiefly to the United States for the extraction of clove oil. A supporting crop is copra which is largely exported. In addition to this trade, the port will continue to be a great transshipment and storage centre for the local trade of East Africa, more particularly for Tanganyika, which has not an altogether satisfactory harbour in Dar-es-Salaam, and therefore looks to Zanzibar, which lies immediately opposite its coasts, as the real outlet for its commerce.

KENYA

The main purpose of both Britain and Germany in East Africa was trade. It was not anticipated that these equatorial lands would offer favourable opportunities for white colonisation. And indeed, the climate around Mombasa and the thickly wooded coastal sector confirmed this view. It was damp and hot and full of fevers, though the south-west monsoon between June and December modified its unpleasantness. Proceeding inland from the sea, the plains again were stifling, but the atmosphere was drier here, and malaria was not so prevalent. Nevertheless, for settlers it appeared most

unpromising. When, however, the great project of the railway from Mombasa to Uganda was making splendid headway and the highlands of East Africa were reached, the prospect was very different. Here, at a height above the sea varying from 3,000 to 7,000 feet conditions were encountered which were healthy and even bracing for Europeans. On this plateau of open prairie, hot though it could be at times, white colonisation became a practical proposition. The soil was fertile, land was plentiful, and experiments proved that circumstances were ideal for the growing of coffee.

Thus it transpired that what was once the British East Africa Protectorate became, in 1920, Kenya Colony, taking its name from Mount Kenya, the most prominent feature of the country and at 17,000 feet the second highest peak in all Africa. The Protectorate was continued for the coastal section ten miles in depth, of which the Sultan of Zanzibar remained the nominal lord and is still paid a rent of £17,000 a year. There have been alterations in the original boundaries of Kenya. The Province of Jubaland was ceded to a friendly Italy in 1925, and 36,000 square miles were added to Italian Somaliland. In the following year the district west of Lake Rudolf was taken over from Uganda, giving the colony a common frontier with the Sudan. The present area of the Colony and Protectorate is 225,000—rather larger than France.

The total population of Kenya is 3,265,000. Of these about 3,190,000 are natives. They represent an extraordinary mixture of races. On the coast are the Swahilis, Africans with a strong Asiatic strain; further inland are Bantu-speaking peoples alongside others not of Bantu stock. Prominent tribes are the Masai, once warlike nomads who struck terror through the settled

districts, but who are now more peaceful and civilised, though still continuing their somewhat savage custom of drinking the blood of live bulls; and the Kikuyu, also disturbing neighbours with their bows and poisoned arrows, but who have lately shown an aptitude for agriculture.

Of the non-native population between 18,000 and 19,000 are Europeans, and it is they who are responsible for the rapid development of the highlands of Kenya. Their work in building "a distinctive type of British civilisation" in the colony, was praised by a parliamentary commission, which described them as "pioneers in a hurry." The opportunities have attracted a considerable Indian immigration, which now accounts for over 40,000 inhabitants. The Indians are occupied as small traders, clerks, shop assistants and mechanics, with some professional men and wealthy merchants among them. Lastly, there are about 13,000 Arabs, the descendants of the old rulers of East Africa. The government of this motley population is a delicate problem of equity and justice. Difficulties arose on the introduction of an elective element in the Legislative Council, for the Indian community demanded equality with the Europeans, while the Arabs also were dissatisfied with their status.

By a new constitution introduced in 1934 the government went some way to meet the various communities by having separate electoral roles for Europeans, Indians and Arabs. The Europeans kept the original 11 seats allotted to them on the Legislative Council, the Indians were given five seats, and the Arabs one. The official members, however, are still in the majority. It was early laid down that amongst immigrant interests the European must prevail, but that above all considerations

whatsoever the principle of trusteeship for the natives must be paramount. Native welfare has indeed been closely watched. Working through their own chiefs and tribal organisations, Britain is teaching the Africans the art of government, education, health laws, stock-breeding and agriculture. Compulsory labour for the white man is prohibited; and, indeed, so much has been done to set the natives of Kenya on their own feet that planters have found it impossible to obtain sufficient workers for their fields and have had to import them from other parts of Africa.

The principal export of the colony is coffee. The excellence of Kenya coffee has become famous throughout the markets of Europe, and for this the British settlers deserve all the credit. Other items of export are maize, sisal, tea, sugar and gold. Stock-raising, cereals and vegetables are successful. There is a customs union with Uganda, which greatly facilitates trade, and a common currency, which was changed in 1920 from the Indian rupee to a British shilling divided into a hundred cents.

No development in Kenya would have been possible to anything like the present extent without the building of the Kenya-Uganda railway. This remarkable feat of engineering cost over £9,000 a mile and was completed in the face of immense obstacles in the shape of difficult terrain—at one point the line reaches an altitude of 8,350 feet—attacks by hostile natives, and the man-eating onslaughts of wild animals. From Mombasa to Kampala, the former Mengo, the main line is 880 miles long. There are important branches. One connects with the Tanganyika system; another runs from Nairobi to the foot of Mount Kenya; and yet another leaves Nakuru Junction for Kisumu on

Victoria Nyanza. There have been developments, too, in air transport. The colony lies on the imperial air route from England to the Cape, and maintains three air ports—at Nairobi, Kisumu, and Mombasa.

In Nairobi, Kenya has a pleasant capital, laid out on modern lines in spacious avenues and squares and goodly streets. Situated 5,000 feet above the sea, it is thoroughly healthy and agreeable, which accounts for the fact that it is the European metropolis. Here are the headquarters of most of the administrations and businesses of the colony, as well as of the battalion of the King's African Rifles. With its Cathedral of All Saints, its Central Station of the Uganda Railway, its government offices, public buildings and up-to-date shops, it enjoys all the amenities of a European city. Living is good, but expensive. The social life of the colony is centred in the town, which stands in the middle of the coffee country, the most densely settled part of Kenya. Nairobi has a non-native population of 22,000 and a native quarter, separate from the rest, in which live 28,000 Africans. The Europeans number about 5,600—nearly a third of the colony's total white population.

The largest town in Kenya is Mombasa, the "Magnificent." It has a population of 50,000, but, owing to climatic conditions, only a thousand are European. Mombasa, which is built on an island, has the finest harbour on the East Africa coast. The island is connected with the mainland by Salisbury Bridge. At Mombasa itself is the port used chiefly by coasting vessels. The principal harbour, known as Kilindini is situated on the other side of the island, where its spacious, land-locked waters can accommodate vessels of any size. With this outlet on the sea the whole interior

of East Africa is connected by the Uganda railway. Here is the gateway to a vast dominion, whose prosperity has at last threatened the pre-eminence of Zanzibar.

The well-built town of Mombasa, adorned with its rich garment of tropical vegetation, contains a reminder of its romantic past. This is the old fort, now in ruins, which overlooks the harbour. It was built in 1593 by the Portuguese in an attempt to maintain their suzerainty over the old Zenj empire. For many years it resisted the attacks of the Arabs, anxious to drive their new masters out, but it fell at last, in 1698, after a two years siege. The disaster loosened Portugal's hold on these parts of East Africa, which passed under the Imams of Muscat. Mombasa then became the throbbing centre of the slave traffic, an evil that persisted until the coming of the British who finally suppressed it—a great work for humanity for which our country does not get, even from her own sons, the grateful acknowledgment that is her due.

UGANDA

Uganda is the country of the lakes. Of its total area of 94,000 square miles, 13,700 of them are water. Within the borders of the Protectorate are included the northern half of Africa's great inland sea, Victoria Nyanza, part of Edward Nyanza, half of Albert Nyanza, and the whole of lakes George, Kioga, and Salisbury. Before the transfer of the north-east province to Kenya, Uganda also reached the western shore of Lake Rudolf.

About the middle of last century the African explorers were busily searching for the source of the Nile. In 1858, J. H. Speke and Richard Burton set off on a journey to verify the rumours about the existence of

great lakes in Central Africa. They had discovered Tanganyika, when Burton fell ill, and Speke continued the quest alone. He journeyed on towards the north, and at last came upon the vast sheet of water stretching beyond the horizon, which we know now as Victoria Nyanza. Speke was convinced that here was the long-sought source of the great river of Egypt. But on returning to England, the explorer found few ready to accept his theory. Accordingly, he returned to Africa to put it to the test, and in 1861 was back again at the south-west point of Lake Victoria. Travelling along the western shore, he entered the native kingdom of Buganda, after which Uganda is named. The famous king, Mutesa, detained him at his capital of Mengo, and it was some months before he was allowed to proceed. At last Speke persuaded Mutesa to furnish him with guides and permit him to depart.

The Buganda guides led Speke to a point in the centre of the northern shore of Victoria Nyanza, and there he saw a great river issuing fully born from the lake over a fall 850 feet broad. At last the great secret was in his possession. He had discovered the source of the Nile! The falls, known to us as the Ripon Falls, are situated at the head of Napoleon Gulf, making a most beautiful exit for the great river, which in this upper reach is known as the Victoria Nile. For the first fifty miles it descends in a series of cascades and rapids to a depth of 700 feet. It then broadens out to form Lake Kioga. From Kioga to the Karuma falls, a hundred miles farther downstream, the river is navigable. From that spot to the Murchison Falls it is unnavigable, and after Murchison, is received by Albert Nyanza. After issuing from this lake, the Nile crosses the Sudan border at Nimule.

After the great lakes and the Nile, the next distinctive feature of importance in the Uganda country is Mount Elgon. This is a huge but extinct volcano, with a crater ten miles in diameter. The highest peak exceeds 14,000 feet. Mount Elgon lies in the Eastern Province, on the Kenya border, and its massive breadth and altitude have an influence on the climate, bringing a more generous rainfall than other parts of Uganda enjoy. The climate of the country as a whole is remarkably uneven. While some districts, notably the lake region, are well watered, others, particularly in the north, are extremely arid and may have no rain in two years. The low-lying districts are hot and unhealthy for Europeans. Indeed, Uganda is definitely a black man's country, and white people, if they do visit it, should choose the season between October and January.

Uganda is important to Britain for the very reason that it controls the upper waters of the Nile which flow from it into the Sudan and thence down into Egypt. The Protectorate has about 3,700,000 inhabitants, of whom 2,100 are Europeans and 16,000 Asiatics. About two-thirds of the Africans speak Bantu languages, the most important being Luganda, the tongue of the considerable Buganda people, many of whom are Christians. Although the Governor assisted by his Executive and Legislative Councils is ultimately responsible for the whole territory, the native chiefs, or kabakas, are encouraged to govern their tribes in their own way, their rights often safeguarded by treaty. These native chiefs are assisted by Lukikos, or councils of natives, who themselves regulate all purely tribal matters, although an appeal is allowed to the British authorities.

The chief province of the Protectorate is Buganda, which is recognised as a native state. Its present ruler

is His Highness Sir Daudi Chwa, a grandson of the famous Mutesa. The old capital, Mengo, now Kampala, is still the seat of government, and the kabaka is assisted by three native ministers and the Buganda Lukiko. Since 1897 all has been quiet in the native kingdom, but in that year a most dangerous situation arose. The chief Mwanga rebelled, and after his defeat fled into German territory. His son, then under age, was made king with a native council of Regency. But in September of the same year a mutiny took place among the Sudanese regiments who had been employed to defeat Mwanga. An expedition was dispatched, and encamped at Fort Turnan near the Lumbwa Hills. Major Thurston, an officer with great experience of the Sudanese, tried to use his influence with the men, but was treacherously murdered by the rebel leader, Belal Effendi. This was the signal for extended revolts by Sudanese and natives, and months of hard fighting were necessary before order was restored. The trouble was largely due to misunderstandings, and these being cleared up, peace was possible and permanent.

The seat of the Uganda government is Entebbe, an attractive little garden city surrounded by groves of bananas and woods full of raucous parrots. Kampala, the old Buganda capital of Mengo, and Jinja in the Eastern Province are the chief commercial centres. Down the great railway to Mombasa go the products of Uganda, cotton the chief of them, followed by coffee, and then tobacco, sugar, oil seeds, gold, tin, timber, and hides and skins. The cotton plantations are largely in native hands, and a very good thing they have made out of the industry. In addition to the excellent system of communication with the coast, the trade of Uganda has another outlet via the Great Lakes and the Nile.

A line of steamers on these waters maintains with road and rail connections a through service all the way from Mombasa to the Sudan border and down into Egypt.

The natives of Uganda have prospered under the Protectorate and are now peaceful and content. To Britain her position as protector is important since it enables her to dominate the whole of East Africa and to control the head-waters of the Nile.

TANGANYIKA

Development in Tanganyika Territory has followed a parallel course to that of Kenya. The building of the central railway from the port of Dar-es-Salaam, through Tabora, to Ujiji and Kigoma on Lake Tanganyika opened up the highlands suitable for European settlement. The greater part of the ex-German colony is occupied by the Central African Plateau, where climatic conditions are so much more healthy and pleasant than the hot, damp, malarial regions of the coast. There was a German population of about 4,000, settled mostly about the elevated region of Usambara, at the outbreak of the Great War. After the defeat of Germany and conquest of German East Africa, most of these German colonists were repatriated and their estates sold. Their places were taken by British, many of them from South Africa; and to-day there is a white population of about 9,000. Since 1925 Germans have been permitted to return to their erstwhile colony.

The native population numbers over 5,000,000, mostly of mixed Bantu stock. Under German rule a mild form of slavery still persisted, but since 1922 it has been abolished entirely, and all men and women are

free. The terms of the League of Nations mandate, under which the country is governed, emphasises the principle of trusteeship for the backward races, and lays down the condition that the country and people must not be exploited in the interests of the European.

Tanganyika is another lake country. In the south-west the boundary runs along the upper portion of Lake Nyasa; most of the western frontier is occupied by the long lake of Tanganyika, a name which means "Great Meeting of the Waters" and was chosen for the Territory when Britain took control; in the north, half of the expansive Victoria Nyanza is within the confines of the country. Railways link up with the steamships on the lakes. The great line from Dar-es-Salaam reaches Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika, the place where Stanley at last discovered Livingstone. A branch leaves the main line at Tabora and travels to Mwanza, a spick and span town on the southern shore of Lake Victoria. The Territory's railway system is completed by a line from Tanga, on the coast opposite Pemba Island, through Usambara to Moshi, connecting with the Kenya railway.

Apart from the Great Lakes, Tanganyika has the added distinction of containing the highest mountain on the African continent in Kilimanjaro. Rising to a height of 19,720 feet, it seems to stand sentinel over a land of many mountains and rivers, and from its post on the Kenya border to keep watch over the 360,000 square miles of the country and its 500 miles of coastline.

Tanganyika is ruled from Dar-es-Salaam, situated on the coast, south of Zanzibar. The Territory at one time included the Ruanda-Urundi district, in the north-west, but this was later transferred to the Belgian Congo. The capital is a well-planned town in the European

style, though it does not possess a harbour that will stand comparison with Mombasa or Zanzibar. Through the port flow the products of Tanganyika—sisal and tea, grown almost entirely by non-natives; coffee, maize and tobacco, produced by both natives and non-natives; copra, ground-nuts, sesame, beeswax, ghee, tobacco, hides and skins, as well as some gold and diamonds. Grains and fruits are grown largely for native consumption. Much of the area is under forest, from which valuable timbers are obtained. Over 4,000 acres have been set aside as government reserves.

The great resources of Tanganyika have as yet been only lightly tapped. There is a wonderful future before this country, but under what flag is a matter upon which the wise man hesitates to prophesy.

THE SUDAN

The Sudan, properly the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, is a country nearly as large in area as British India, and lives under the two flags of Britain and Egypt. The administration is a dual affair, the Governor-General being appointed by Egypt with the assent of Britain. Since 1910 the Governor-General has been assisted by a Council chosen from among the government officials, and thus advised, he is responsible for laws and ordinances. The vast territory, which has a maximum length of 1,650 miles from Egypt to Uganda and a maximum breadth from the Red Sea to French Equatorial Africa of 950 miles, is divided into eight mudiriyas, or provinces, each under a governor, who is called a mudir. The provinces are again subdivided into districts under District Commissioners, who have native administrative officials under them; and the

districts are still further split up into areas, which are under the control of the native authorities themselves.

The majority of the Sudanese are Moslems, and the laws relating to family relationships, such as marriage, divorce, inheritance, and the like, are settled in the Mohammedan courts in accordance with the law of Islam. There are district and provincial courts, and a Mahkama, or high court, which is presided over by the Grand Kadi. Criminal justice and justice on matters outside Mohammedan law are administered generally by the governors and district commissioners. Behind them stands a defence force, itself composed of native troops. And it says much for the stability of British rule that the police force is also enlisted locally.

In the whole of the Sudan there are probably less than 7,000 Europeans. The native population numbers six millions. This is only three-quarters of what it was half a century ago, before the terrible rule of the Mahdi, or Mohammedan Messiah, reduced the land to chaos, want, and misery. In that period, which lasted from 1881 to 1898, the numbers fell from $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions to two millions. The Sudanese are partly Arab, partly Negro, and partly Nubian, the last-named a mixture of Arab and Negro. The Arabs and Nubians of the north, who are Arabic-speaking, make up the bulk of the Moslem population: most of the Negro element of the south is pagan. Although of fine physique, the tribes, or most of them, are somewhat lazy, because their wants are few and easily satisfied. In their hot, dry, climate houses and shelter are not necessities. Clothes are not needed to keep out the cold. Many live outdoor lives in the desert; and even one who is rich in livestock is content to wear rags and have nothing more imposing for a dwelling-place than an old mat.

Britain would never have acquired a motherly interest in the Sudanese if it had not been for her relations with Egypt. The country, long under Arab influence, was conquered and made an Egyptian province by the strong pasha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, in 1820-21. It was during this campaign that the pasha's son, Ismail, led his army south to the confluence of the Blue and White Nile and established his camp at Ras Khartoum. This camp was to grow into the city of Khartoum, a name that has poignant memories for both Briton and Egyptian.

While the Sudan was being governed, and governed badly, by Egypt, English pioneer merchants began to penetrate the country, following the course of the Nile. The first of these was John Petherick, who in 1853 went in search of ivory, of which the Sudan was once the chief supplier. After 1869, the year in which the Suez Canal was opened, Britain's interest in Egypt quickened, for the country enjoyed a position of immense strategic importance on the new line of communication to India and the Far East. This interest was extended to include the dependent territories of Egypt, of which the Sudan was the chief.

Britain's Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, finding that Egypt's ruler at the time, Ismail Pasha, was in desperate need of money, acquired for Britain the shares he held in the Canal and secured a controlling interest in the concern. Further enquiry into Egypt's internal condition revealed a chaotic state of affairs verging on bankruptcy. It was decided to intervene to restore order and stability. Originally the work was intended to be undertaken jointly by Britain and France, but France withdrew at an early stage and left the British representative, Sir Evelyn Baring, afterwards Lord Cromer, to

bear sole responsibility. A rebellion broke out among the Egyptians against Ismail Pasha, which necessitated the dispatch of a British expeditionary force; and when the trouble was over, Britain, now fully answerable for the peace of Egypt, decided to keep the troops in the country as an army of occupation.

Now that Britain had so closely identified herself with the destiny of Egypt, it followed that Englishmen became associated to an increasing degree with the administration of the Egyptian Sudan. The widespread corruption that was found to exist and the state of ruin to which the country had been reduced by Egyptian misgovernment, which permitted amongst other evils a wholesale traffic in slaves, led in 1877 to the appointment of Colonel, afterwards General, Gordon as Governor-General of all the Khedive's dominions outside Egypt proper. The appointment had the consent of both governments; and Gordon's energetic administration at Khartoum, lasting until August, 1879, was an era of reform, which brought order out of chaos, abolished corruption, and suppressed the inhumanities of the slave traffic.

Unfortunately, Gordon was succeeded in office by incompetent Turkish governors and Egyptian officials, and the old abuses crept back and increased to such an extent that the country rose in rebellion. In 1881 Mohammed Ahmed proclaimed himself the Mahdi, or Messiah of the Moslems, and the whole country was quickly aflame. At this crisis, Britain was caught in a half-hearted mood, unable to ignore the revolt and yet disinclined to suppress it with energy. This vacillating attitude was to have tragic consequences. General Gordon was dispatched to the Sudan to effect the withdrawal of the Egyptian garrisons sorely beset by the

Mahdi's forces. But he himself was shut up in Khartoum, and defended it with great gallantry against impossible odds. The indecision of the British Government was painfully revealed by the delay in sending a force to his relief. When it was at last dispatched, it arrived just two days too late. Khartoum had fallen, and Gordon was dead.

In these distressing circumstances Sir Evelyn Baring wisely decided against any immediate attempt to recover the Sudan. The country was left to the mercy of the Mahdi's tyrannical rule. He himself was soon dead, but his successor, the Khalifa, was no improvement. For sixteen years the people suffered and died before the time was considered ripe for decisive action. An Anglo-Egyptian army was then gathered and placed under the command of General Kitchener. As the fruit of brilliant preliminary organisation, it marched up the Nile without serious check, and on September 2nd, 1898, gained a crushing victory over the Dervishes near Omdurman, the rebel capital, when the power of the Khalifa was finally destroyed. Kitchener was established at Khartoum as Governor-General of the Sudan and Sirdar, or commander-in-chief, of the Egyptian army; and British influence over the upper Nile was safely secured.

While Kitchener was marching to Omdurman an incident occurred which nearly embroiled Britain in a war with France. A French pioneer, Captain J. Marchand, after a courageous and difficult march across the desert, reached the Nile at a place called Fashoda, and raised the French flag. Although the site was only a mud flat in the middle of a swamp, Captain Marchand's presence was understood as a challenge by France to Britain's claim to dominate the Nile. After

Omdurman, Kitchener came to Fashoda and requested that the French flag be removed. Marchand refused. An acute crisis developed. War seemed certain. But at the last moment France gave way, agreeing to withdraw from Fashoda in return for a rectification of boundaries which enabled her to weld her North African possessions into one homogeneous whole, with a frontier 500 miles west of the Nile. A subsequent agreement with King Leopold of Belgium as to the delimitation of the Congo-Sudan boundary brought about the final withdrawal of other Europeans from the Nile valley, and left Britain in the sole control, for which she had worked so assiduously.

With the reconquest of the Sudan the dual administration of Britain and Egypt was inaugurated, and has operated well, particularly from the Sudanese point of view. Under the two flags, slavery is forbidden and the traffic in arms is strictly supervised and hedged about with restrictions. Industry has flourished; education has been advanced; development in irrigation and communications has been extensive; peace has been preserved; and—the most important point of all—the people are quiet and content. What Britain has done for them is appreciated by the natives. Particularly was this so in 1913, when a failure of the Nile floods threatened the Sudan with famine. Britain acted promptly and efficiently in the emergency. She brought corn from India and routed the spectre of starvation, which in similar circumstances previously had brought death to thousands. The Sudanese remembered this during the World War and remained loyal to Britain, although Turkey, the great Mohammedan power, with whom on religious grounds their sympathies would naturally lie, was then ranged with her enemies.

When war broke out, Egypt was still a nominal possession of Turkey's; but on the Sultan throwing in his lot with Austria and Germany, a British Protectorate was declared over the country on December 18th, 1914, with the consent of Britain's allies. With the coming of peace, a movement for independence gathered momentum and dominated Egyptian politics. The British Government was sympathetic to these patriotic aspirations; and on February 28th, 1922, the protectorate was brought to an end, and Egypt was declared a sovereign state, with the Sultan, Fuad I assuming the title of King. There were certain reservations. Britain was insistent that a few important matters should be settled only by full discussion and agreement between the two countries. One of these was communications; another was protection of foreign interest and minorities. But the most important from our immediate point of view was the future of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Egypt was, perhaps naturally, anxious to obtain complete control of the country, but Britain considered her civilising mission incomplete and her continued presence essential. Not only had the vast development schemes in the Sudan necessitated the sinking of many millions of British capital in the country, but the continued well-being of the contented Sudanese had to be ensured. Misguided attempts have been made since 1922 to detach the Sudan from its loyalty to its British benefactor, but these have met with insignificant response.

The life of the Sudan, as of Egypt, has depended upon the Nile. The great river nursed one of the earliest and most ancient of the world civilisations. It was the periodic flooding, depositing its mud on the lands bordering either bank and so making the soil fertile and

productive, that enabled the Nile to support a thriving population. In our chapter on Uganda we traced the source of the mighty stream to Victoria Nyanza, whence it emerges over the Ripon Falls to commence its 3,500 mile journey to the sea. Following it through Albert Nyanza, we left it at Nimule on the Sudan border. Here it is called the Bahr-el-Jebel, a name it bears until joined by the Bahr-el-Ghazal, a river that gives its title to the southern province of the Sudan. Thereafter the great stream becomes the White Nile. At Lado the river emerges from the mountains and enters the plains, flowing sluggishly along the 900 navigable miles to Khartoum. There it is joined by the Blue Nile. This great tributary rises in Lake Tana in the Abyssinian mountains, and flows through the historic kingdom of Sennar, and Sennar capital, the chief town in the eastern Sudan, to the confluence, a total distance of 850 miles.

Khartoum, the capital of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, is built in the fork formed by the White and Blue Nile. This promontory of land is shaped like an elephant's tusk, and that is what the word "khartoum" means in Arabic. The old city was destroyed by the Mahdi's Dervishes, and the modern town was planned by Kitchener in 1898. The streets and squares are laid out to form the design of the Union Jack. The exceptions are the River Esplanade, two miles long, on which the principal buildings are located, and Khedive Avenue, which runs parallel to it. In the centre of the Esplanade stands the palace of the Governor-General. It occupies the site of the old palace which the Mahdists destroyed, and a tablet marks the spot where the gallant Gordon fell. Khartoum possesses an ideal situation for a political and commercial centre and has a population,

a very mixed one, of 47,000. The two Niles enable it to be approached easily from three directions; and since 1899 there has been rail communication with Wadi Halfa on the Egyptian border. Soon after the recovery of Khartoum from the Khalifa, plans were made for giving the city a trade outlet via the Red Sea. After a careful survey of the coast, a spot was chosen, which afforded good anchorage and a protected harbour. On this site the modern town of Port Sudan was built and linked with Khartoum by rail in 1906.

Opposite Khartoum, on the west bank of the White Nile, stands the city of Omdurman. During the turbulent reigns of the Mahdi and the Khalifa it was the capital of the Sudan. It is a native city of mud huts and narrow lanes. Of little consequence when selected by the Mahdi as his headquarters, it has now a population of 110,000. The battlefield of Omdurman, where Kitchener won his decisive victory over the Dervishes, a victory which settled the future of the Sudan, lies about seven miles to the north of the town itself.

Two hundred miles below Khartoum the Nile receives another great tributary in the Atbara, or Black Nile, a river 800 miles long. Below Atbara the river describes an enormous S bend, first round by the north, then round by the south, before heading again for the Mediterranean. For 1,600 miles it does not receive a single tributary, and owing to the extent of the evaporation, the volume of water grows less and less. The fertile valley belt becomes exceedingly narrow, and in some places the desert seems to bring its thirsty mouth to the very brink of the waters. Yet the Nile flows on, and its life-giving waters descend into Egypt, which it enters at Wadi Halfa. Between Khartoum and Assouan

in Egypt, there are six cataracts, interrupting the long navigable stretches.

Away from the Nile valley much of the country is desert. The north of the Sudan is really a part of the Sahara. Between the great S bend and the Red Sea is another desolate region known as the Nubian desert. The southern portions of the country are well watered and for the most part fertile, dense forests covering many large areas. South of the junction with the Bahr-el-Ghazal large swamps extend from the river on each side. Some districts, even of the cultivated portions of the Sudan, are extremely hot. The Arabs say of the centre, "The soil is like fire and the wind like a flame." But it is not a damp heat, and therefore not unhealthy.

Industrially the Sudan has made enormous strides under British direction. It has a valuable natural asset in its gum arabic, of which it is the world's chief source of supply. It grows a number of different crops, the most extensive being dura, or great millet, which is the staple food of the people. Fresh industries, such as the production of salt by the evaporation process at Port Sudan, have been launched. But the most successful of all the new ventures has been the growing of cotton, which has been made possible by a grandly imagined and cleverly planned and executed system of irrigation.

The rise of the Nile—this occurs between June and September—had been the chief annual event in Egypt for thousands of years. On its height depended the fertility of the country; it alone determined the periods of famine or plenty. A failure of the waters meant death and starvation for thousands of the population. The skill of British engineering has ended this uncertainty for the Sudan and Egypt. By the erection of enormous dams, flood-water is stored and released as

the necessity arises. One of the most important of these in the Sudan is the great Sennar Dam on the Blue Nile, about 160 miles above Khartoum. The irrigation schemes have brought wide tracts of country under cultivation, which before were barren. The Gezira scheme has claimed 800,000 acres between the Blue and White Nile, which is now highly cultivated, a quarter of it devoted to cotton. Sugar is another crop that has been made possible of successful cultivation by the assurance of an adequate water supply all the year round. And the long list of products of which the Sudan can now proudly boast is due primarily to the achievements of the engineers.

Although the Sudan is bound closely to Egypt geographically, politically, and commercially—there is free trade between the two—it is unlikely, in view of the lessons of past history, that Britain will readily agree to abandon her tutelage and leave the Egyptian flag to fly there alone.

BRITISH SOMALILAND

Of recent years much of the world's attention has been concentrated on that horn-like protuberance from the east coast of Africa, which contains Abyssinia and Somaliland. Before Signor Mussolini planted the Italian flag in Addis Ababa, Abyssinia was still sovereign and independent. Somaliland, however, had come under the protection of three European powers, Britain, France and Italy, who divided it between themselves into spheres of influence.

Britain was first on the scene. In 1827 a British ship was plundered by the Somalis, who in this rather unpleasant manner drew attention to themselves. Between

that year and 1840 treaties were signed with the Sultan of Tajura and Zeilah by which he agreed to make no terms with other powers. Musha Island, at the entrance to the Gulf of Tajura, was bought for ten bags of rice by the East India Company, which was trying to find a harbour for its ships free of all prohibitions.

At this period Somaliland was quite unexplored. It was, indeed, almost the last part of Africa to yield up its secrets. It was a difficult proposition, for the safe coastal strip is narrow and bordered by a high plateau occupying the whole area inland. In places the edge of this plateau comes very close indeed to the ocean. Wild animals—lions, leopards, panthers, elephants, and rhinoceros—as well as hostile natives made an expedition into the interior a perilous enterprise. There were, however, courageous British adventurers ready to undertake it. They came over from Aden, on the opposite side of the gulf, which was already in British hands. They were mostly officers of the Indian Army, who were eager to push across the inland plateau, at the same time as Indian naval officers were mapping the Somali coast. Among these explorers was J. H. Speke, famous for his later discovery of the source of the Nile, and his co-traveller, Richard Burton. In 1854 they set out into the unknown, where, unfortunately, disaster awaited them. The Somalis attacked the party, and both Speke and Burton were wounded. This postponed further British exploration in Somaliland for twenty years.

In 1875 Ismail Pasha, Khedive of Egypt, occupied the coast of Somaliland, and, in consideration of a yearly tribute, received from the Sultan of Turkey a grant of the port of Zeilah. At the time Turkey was the nominal ruler of the Somali coastal country. Under

Egyptian rule exploration work was taken up again, and Britons had their fair share in it. The revolt of the Sudan in 1884 put an abrupt end to Egypt's occupation of the Somali coast, and all Egyptians were withdrawn.

With this withdrawal, the European period of Somali history was opened. Britain sent officials over from Aden and occupied the towns of Berbera, Zeilah, and Bulhar, her purpose being the protection of the route to India via the Suez Canal and the Gulf of Aden. A protectorate was declared over this part of the Somali coast. At the same time France occupied Tajura, and Italy, Massowa. The seaboard of eastern Somaliland also came under the influence of Italy, and good work by Italian explorers in the interior secured for their country her present colony of Italian Somaliland. The position was stabilised by agreements between the three powers and with Abyssinia, and the limits of the British, French and Italian spheres determined. Britain handed her part of Somaliland over to the Indian Government, but in 1898 the Foreign Office took on the administration, transferring it to the Colonial Office in 1905.

Although friendly relations were maintained with the neighbours of British Somaliland, serious trouble arose within the protectorate through the operations of one Mahommed bin Abdullah, who became known as the Mad Mullah. He managed to acquire great influence among the southern Somalis, and with a large following executed a number of devastating raids upon those tribes friendly to the British. Opponents of the Mullah begged for British protection, a request that led to extended military operations through an exceedingly difficult country, which lasted for three years, 1901-1904. In the end Mahommed bin Abdullah was forced to

flee the protectorate, and there were some years of peace.

But the Mad Mullah was not done with. In 1909 his raiding activities started again; and the British Government realised that the rather loose hold they had upon British Somaliland was not adequate to maintain order. They were faced either with establishing effective occupation through the building of roads and railways, or with an abandonment of the interior and a retirement to the coast. Owing to the indecisive results of operations undertaken against the Mullah, Mr. Asquith's government decided upon evacuation. For some years afterwards Britain placed a strict limit to her expansion inland and concentrated on strengthening her coastal position.

In 1914, Mr. (later Sir) Geoffrey Archer, went to Somaliland as Commissioner, a title afterwards changed to Governor. Under his rule the policy of limiting British control to the coast towns was terminated and steps were taken to make the Crown's authority effective over the whole area of the protectorate. Sir Geoffrey was completely successful in achieving his purpose, largely the result, no doubt, of his own energy and competence. But the governor had a means of surmounting the difficulties of the terrain which was denied to his predecessors. The Royal Air Force came to his aid and pursued the Mad Mullah and his Dervishes wherever they fled, until his followers had had enough of it, and he himself fled to Abyssinia, to die there in 1921.

Since the conquest of Abyssinia, British Somaliland has been surrounded on three sides by the Italian Empire. French Somaliland, a small territory, lies to the north-west; and the 400 miles of shoreline looks

across the Gulf of Aden to Aden itself. On the possibility of amicable relations between Britain and Italy the future of British Somaliland will depend.

The Somalis are a Moslem people. They claim Arab descent, but bear characteristics which betray a strong admixture of negro blood. Although a fine-looking race, they are most indolent, and the big game hunter, anxious to profit by the splendid opportunities for sport offered by the interior, finds he cannot persuade them to act as porters. All their transport is done by camel. The population of the protectorate is estimated at 345,000 in 68,000 square miles of territory. Almost all of them are wanderers, seeking new grazing for their livestock. Very few, comparatively speaking, are settled. It is true that the towns on the coast have grown during the years the British have been interested in the country, but the numbers of inhabitants vary according to the cold or hot season and the fluctuations of trade. For instance, Berbera, the capital and only satisfactory natural harbour on the whole coast of the Gulf of Aden, has a hot population of 15,000 and a cold season population of 30,000. The same variation is seen at the other coastal towns of Zeilah and Bulhar; and Hargeisa, or Little Harrar, the largest place inland, varies between 15,000 and 20,000 inhabitants.

The wealth of the Somalis is represented chiefly by their cattle, sheep and goats. They export animals, hides and skins, and also do a profitable trade in gum and resin, as well as ghee. Somaliland is not a white man's country. The climate on the coast is hot, at some periods overbearingly so. The high plateau is more bracing, however, but the rain is slight. Near the sea the summer monsoons temporarily convert the dry river beds into rushing torrents. The Somalis are

now content and peaceful, and are so satisfied to have been delivered from the Mad Mullah and his Dervishes that Britain is able to hold the country with a camel corps 400 strong and a police force of 550.

CHAPTER VII

THE INDIAN OCEAN

THE Crown Colonies to be surveyed under this section consist of scattered and widely separated possessions of Britain in the vast expanse of the Indian Ocean. In the west, on the southern coast of Arabia, lies Aden and its dependencies. Further south, off the east coast of Africa, but largely independent of it, are the islands of the Seychelles and Mauritius. In the Persian Gulf is the independent Arab kingdom of Bahrain, which is under British protection; and at the foot of India lies the most valuable of our crown colonies in this part of the world, Ceylon. The Indian Ocean is, of course, dominated by the Empire of India, including Burma. But these great dominions and their dependencies lie outside the scope of the present work.

ADEN

The name "Aden" requires some explanation. It is used to cover much more than the peninsula of volcanic rock on which Aden itself stands. The Colony of Aden includes the small island of Perim, a hundred miles to the west, at the southern end of the Red Sea; and another Red Sea island in Kamaran, 200 miles north of Perim. The Kuria Muria Islands, far away to the east and lying off the shores of the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman were formerly attached to Aden, but were transferred to the Persian Gulf Residency in 1931.

The colony has an area of 75 square miles and a population of 47,000. The Protectorate of Aden consists of mainland territories east, north and west of the Aden peninsula. They lie between the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman on the east and the Kingdom of Yemen on the west, and extend along the north coast of the Gulf of Aden for 600 miles. Also included in the Protectorate is the Island of Sokotra. The total area is about 112,000 square miles with a population of 600,000. It is guarded by the Royal Air Force.

Aden proper is quite small. It consists of the Aden peninsula, connected with the mainland by a strip of low, sandy ground only a few feet in height; another peninsula called Little Aden; and the town of Shaikh Othman, with a couple of villages on the mainland of Arabia. The place is a natural stronghold with precipitous rocks reaching at one point nearly 1,800 feet, probably part of a volcano. There are two harbours: one facing the town, which is built on the eastern coast of the peninsula, where the island of Sirah offers protection from the weather; the other on the western side which is known as Aden Back Bay. The eastern harbour has now become choked with mud; but Aden Back Bay is available for large vessels all the year round.

Aden has had a chequered career. The importance of its geographical position was apparent even to the Romans, who thought its occupation worth while. Situated 105 miles from the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, the entrance to the Red Sea, conveniently placed at the end of the ancient trade routes across Arabia, and within a short distance and easy sea trip of the African coast, it was well fitted to become the great clearing-house for trade between east and west. For many centuries it enjoyed wonderful prosperity. Then the

Portuguese opened the sea route via the Cape of Good Hope, and the tide of trade receded from Aden. Its decline was a sad one, but not, it was proved, to be irreversible. With the contact established between the Western Powers and Egypt, culminating in the opening of the Suez Canal, Aden found itself once again on one of the busiest trade routes of the world, and the palmy days returned.

By this time the British flag flew over the peninsula. The occupation was not a deliberate act arising out of an appreciation of the strategic importance of Aden: it was due to the accidental wreck of a British vessel on the neighbouring coast in 1837. The unfortunate crew and passengers were captured and ill-treated by the subjects of the Arab Sultan, and an apology was demanded. The Sultan, by way of compensation, agreed to sell the town and port to the British. It was then of little value, the population having dropped to a mere 600. When it came to taking the place over, however, the Sultan's son broke faith and refused to abide by his father's promise. A combined naval and military force was accordingly dispatched, and Aden was taken in a few hours and annexed to British India (1839).

Real use was now made of Aden's unique advantages. As a coaling station, a fortified naval base on a vital line of imperial communication, a distributing centre for goods for the three continents of Europe, Asia and Africa, it recovered rapidly from its period of commercial sickness and regained its old importance and self-respect. Most ships on the Red Sea route put in at Aden to-day, now the most important oil-fuelling station in the East; and visitors are familiar with the polyglot crowd that haunts its colourful bazaars. Here

the Bedouin in his voluminous robes may jostle the nearly naked Somali; here the Indian in his bright-hued cottons may contrast with the shiny ebony limbs of the African; here come camel caravans, such as have been heading across the desert for Aden since the time of Abraham, to confront the latest models in motor vehicles.

Aden is uncomfortably warm for the European. The bare peninsula is sun-scorched and fanned by the hot winds that blow across the Arabian sands and the Indian Ocean. The rocks have few signs of vegetation; and though British residents build their bungalows many hundred feet above the sea on the ridges of Jebel Shamshan, which rise to 1776 feet, it is difficult to escape the burden of the heat.

Water is Aden's greatest problem. Although all food has to be imported, water has always been the real anxiety. In the old days of prosperity there was a remarkable system of rock tanks to catch the rare and precious rain-water. When Aden lost its importance, the tanks fell into disrepair, and few are now serviceable. There are wells, some of them 190 feet deep, sunk in the solid rock, and an aqueduct seven miles long; but the main supply is obtained nowadays from the distillation of sea-water.

Wisely constituted a free port, Aden was a dependency of India from 1839 to 1937. In the latter year the Government of India Act introduced self-governing institutions into the Indian Empire, and Aden then became a crown colony. The governor is the commander-in-chief of the troops forming the garrison. The soldiers have the company of the officials of the Eastern Telegraph, for the station is one of the important points in the imperial cable system. Here

the lines diverge, one going to India and Australia, the other to Zanzibar and the Cape. Although British-born persons in the service of the Empire agree that Aden can be ferociously hot, they will admit that it is much healthier than many other stations in the tropics.

While Aden is strengthened against attack by every device known to modern science, the little island of Perim is unfortified. The 1,700 people on its five square miles have been mostly concerned with the service the island has rendered as a bunkering station. It was occupied in 1857, and has always been administered from Aden. Since 1936, when the Perim Coal Company withdrew, there has been little activity at the port.

Kamaran was a Turkish island until the Great War. It was taken by the British in 1915, when it was placed under the governor of Aden. It is some 22 square miles in area with a population of 2,200. The service it performs is a curious one. The Indian Government and the Government of the Netherlands Indies run it jointly as a quarantine station for pilgrims from the East on their way to Mecca.

The five Kuria Muria Islands have been British possessions since 1854, when the Sultan of Muscat was persuaded to cede them for the purpose of a cable station. All of them are rocky and lofty, the largest of the group, Hallania, being about 22 square miles in area. They are inhabited by a few Arab families only.

The Aden Protectorate is 112,000 square miles with a population of about 600,000. It includes also the Island of Sokotra. For convenience sake it is divided into two sections. The Western Aden Protectorate is the outcome of treaties between the British Government and twenty-one sultanates, the Sultan of Lahej being

the most important personage. These Sultans are paid handsome and regular allowances for particular privileges reserved for Britain and not granted to rival powers. The Eastern Aden Protectorate includes the Hadramaut, the important coastal region of southern Arabia. In this section, too, is the island of Sokotra, 220 miles off the Arabian coast. About the size of Suffolk, it is said to have some 12,000 inhabitants. It was occupied by the East India Company in 1834, and fifty years later came under British protection as a result of a treaty with the Sultan, who himself lives on the island. At one time Sokotra was a Christian community, but for the last 200 years the people have been Moslems.

The Protectorate has a trade in dates, gums, livestock, and other articles, but the real purpose of its existence from the British point of view is to make the defence of the valuable strategic base of Aden sure. The wisdom of it was proved in the World War. Although surrounded by portions of the Turkish Empire, and despite the approach to within a few miles of Turkish forces, Aden was never in serious danger of falling into enemy hands. With the change in the balance of power in north-east Africa as a result of the birth of the new Italian Empire, Aden becomes more essential to Britain than ever before.

THE BAHRAIN ISLANDS

Bahrain is an independent Arab state in treaty relations with Britain. The name means "Two Seas," and the country consists of a group of five islands, half-way up the Persian Gulf and about twenty miles off the coast of El Hasa in Arabia. If one could put all the

islands together, they would comprise an area a little smaller than the Isle of Man.

The largest of the islands is Bahrain itself, a flat, low-lying, sandy land relieved by bright green oases and palm groves and stretches of cultivated acres. It is overlooked by the hill of Jebel Dukhan, the Mountain of the Mist—a somewhat flattering description, since it is only 400 feet high. Bahrain contains the capital of the little kingdom and centre of its commerce, Manama, which sprawls along the seashore for about three miles. There are 25,000 people living in Manama, which boasts its own municipal council and is connected by good roads with the two other places of importance in the island, Sukhair and Budaiya, respectively 18 and 12 miles distant. Bahrain is the gateway for trade with the mainland countries of Najd and Hasa, and from its convenient geographical position enjoys a measure of steady prosperity.

Bahrain is 27 miles long by 10 miles wide, and is a long way ahead of the next largest island, lying a mile away to the north-east, which is called Muharraq. This curve-shaped island is only four miles long by half-a-mile wide. It contains the other two towns of note: Muharraq itself, with its 25,000 inhabitants, and Hadd. The other three islands are Sitra, with half its area cultivable; Nabi Saleh, two miles in circumference only, but wholly fertile; and tiny Jezeyra, notable for its date plantations. In addition to the towns mentioned, there are about a hundred villages scattered through the islands, each surrounded by its date groves and cultivated fields, and giving a very charming scenic effect. Except Bahrain, all the islands are coral formations, as are the three rocky islets which are included in the group, but are not inhabited.

The regular population of Bahrain is about 120,000. They are nearly all Moslems. Their numbers are made up of descendants of Arabs who migrated from Najd a couple of hundred years ago, Negroes who have come from Africa to try their luck in the pearl fisheries, a large Persian community, and Hindoo merchants and other Indians. The followers of the Prophet are divided into two sects roughly corresponding to their classes as townsmen or countrymen. As a whole the people of Bahrain are small and slight, but they make up for their physical shortcomings in being extremely intelligent, with a business ability that is generously acknowledged by all their neighbours in the Persian Gulf.

The climate is mild and humid and not at all pleasant for Europeans. There is plenty of water in the islands, but the supply of Muharraq is obtained in quite an extraordinary manner. It comes from springs that burst through the bed of the ocean, which is here very shallow, and shoot their water upward with such force that it remains quite fresh at the surface, uncontaminated by the salt sea waves which surround it.

The Bahrain Islands are chiefly famous for their pearls. They are the centre of the industry in the Persian Gulf. Several hundred sailing vessels of all sizes are manned by crews numbering anything from eight to sixty, who carry on a trade in which their ancestors have engaged from very ancient times. The pearls are of the finest quality and form the chief export to the outside world and the principal source of wealth for the islanders.

In 1932 a new asset was revealed. Oil was discovered on Bahrain Island. It is worked by the Bahrain Petroleum Company which holds a concession from the government, and already the country ranks twelfth

among the oil producers of the world. Bahrain's other lucrative lines are a very special breed of white donkey, which is highly approved, and a useful date industry.

Little is known about the early history of the Bahrain Islands. There are, however, relics of a very ancient occupation, which may in time yield up their secrets. These take the form of thousands of conical-shaped mounds, which contain two-chambered tombs constructed of great slabs of limestone. The tombs are scattered all over the interiors of the islands and vary greatly in size, some of them reaching as much as 40 feet in height with a diameter of 100 yards. The lack of any inscriptions make it difficult even to hazard a guess at their origin. It is clear that they are extremely old, and from certain remains found here and there, a Phoenician origin has been suspected.

The Portuguese, who explored everywhere, took possession of the Bahrain Islands in 1507; but in 1622 they were driven from their settlements by Shah Abbas of Persia. For many years subsequently Persians and Arabs fought over Bahrain, but at last, in 1784, the Athubis, an Arabian tribe, got a grip on the islands, which has not been shaken. In 1867 it was seriously threatened by the Persians, and a few years later by the Turks, but Britain stepped in to ensure that Arab rule was maintained. Her reason for doing so was to protect the trade relations which had existed between Bahrain and India since the early years of the century. In 1880 the ruler agreed to make no treaties with other countries, and the protectorate came into being.

The ruler of Bahrain comes from the Al Khalifa family, who once held great possessions on the mainland, but were driven out by the Turks. The present holder of the office is H. H. Shaikh Sir Hamad bin Isa

al Khalifa, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., who governs his people in his own way, abiding by his treaty relations with the British Government, which is represented at Manama by a Political Agent. The arrangement has worked smoothly and with considerable advantage to both Britain and Bahrain.

SEYCHELLES

The colony of Seychelles is made up of widely scattered groups of islands, lying far out in the Indian Ocean and at great distances from each other. The number of islands is over ninety, but the total area is not much more than that of the Isle of Wight.

The Seychelles Group itself, as distinct from its dependencies, lies 970 miles east of Zanzibar and 600 miles north of Madagascar. The most central island and the largest of the colony is Mahé, which received its name when it was a possession of France from the famous French Governor of the Ile de France, now Mauritius, Mahé de la Bourdonnais. Mahé is a third of the whole area of the colony and has a population of 22,000. On the north-east side of the island is the colonial capital of Port Victoria, which has an excellent anchorage sheltered from the north winds by clusters of small islands, and an inner basin, which is spacious, deep, and well protected. Victoria is important to the Navy as a coaling station and is equipped with fine, modern lighthouses. It lies also on the trade routes from the Red Sea to the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius and Australia.

The other islands of the Seychelles fall naturally into two groups. Firstly, Praslin, 26 miles north-east of

Mahé, with its attendant islands, bearing their original French names, La Digue, Felicité, Curieuse, etc.; secondly, Silhouette, 14 miles north-west of Mahé, and North Island. These islands are very fertile and so beautiful that General Gordon once called them the Garden of Eden. The populations are small. Praslin has only 2,500 people and La Digue 1,250; and there are probably not more than 1,750 persons scattered over the rest of the colony and its dependencies.

The subsidiary groups lie between the Seychelles and Madagascar. They are coral formations, exceptionally fertile, beautiful with their coco-nut palms, and valuable for their guano and phosphate deposits. Most important of them is the Amirante Group, which includes the Alphonse Islands. This is the nearest of the dependencies to the Seychelles, and even so, is 120 miles away. Further south we come to a group of three islands, to which the name Providence was given by the early French settlers. They lie 170 miles north of Madagascar. Two hundred and ten miles west of the Providence Group are the twelve Cosmoledo Islands, and further west still, 70 miles from the Cosmoledos, the Aldabra Group. South of Providence are the Farquhars; and the dependencies are completed by Coetivy, which was at one time administered by Mauritius, but was transferred to Seychelles in 1908.

The Seychelles and their neighbours appeared on the old charts of the Portuguese; and there is evidence that an English ship touched at Mahé in 1609. But the group was then uninhabited and no one appears to have taken any interest in them until 1742, when they were occupied by the French. Captain Lazare Picault, working under the orders of Mahé de la Bourdonnais, was the officer who raised the French flag, giving his chief's

Christian name to the principal island and choosing *Iles de Bourdonnais* as the title of the group. This last appellation was changed in 1756 to the present name in honour of Moreau de Séchelles, financial controller to Louis XV.

It was sometime in the 1760's that the uninhabited islands came to be colonised. The settlers were creoles from Mauritius and Bourbon. The latter island's name was later changed to Réunion by France's revolutionary government. As a result of this early immigration, the white population is still predominantly French, and a kind of French patois is spoken by the people. It is true, though, that of late the British element has relatively increased. There is a strong Negro contingent whose ancestors came to the islands in the first instance as slaves and were afterwards freed. The Negroes were reinforced by those rescued by British warships from the slave-raiders off the African coast. A large number of Indians and Chinese have also made their homes in Seychelles.

The town of Mahé was founded in or about 1768. Soon afterwards an enterprising settler named Pierre Poivre, seeing that the Seychelles did not suffer from the gales which so often troubled Mauritius, had the idea of establishing plantations of spices in the more favourable conditions. At that time the Dutch, through their possessions in the East Indies, had a monopoly of the spice trade. The French colonists, therefore, worked in great secrecy, hoping eventually to surprise the Dutch and wrest the monopoly from them. One day in 1778, when Britain and France were at war, a ship sailed into the harbour flying the Union Jack. The French planters, frightened that their secret would leak out, set fire to their spice crop and destroyed it.

Great was their chagrin on discovering that the vessel was a Frenchman, which had used the British flag as a precaution in case the islands had fallen to the British Navy, and her entry was obstructed.

During the French Revolutionary Wars, Mahé proved exceedingly useful to France and was a thorn in the side of Britain. The Navy, therefore, occupied the island in 1794, but left no garrison behind. The French colonists, in consequence, carried on as before. In 1806 Britain captured the island a second time, but again allowed it to remain ungarrisoned, naturally with the same result. However, in 1810 Mauritius fell, and the Seychelles were then effectively occupied, to be ceded with Mauritius, of which they were made a dependency, under the terms of the Treaty of Paris, 1814.

Throughout this turbulent period the Seychelles were ruled by a remarkable man, who was a veritable Vicar of Bray among colonial governors. J. B. Quéau de Quincy received his appointment from King Louis XVI in 1789. Under the French Revolution he continued to hold his post. Through the glittering conquests of Napoleon, de Quincy remained governor at Mahé; and when the islands passed to the British, the new owners realised that they could not better his administration and confirmed him in his position. He remained governor until his death in 1827, having ruled the islands for 38 years, 21 under the French and 17 under the British. His tomb is preserved in the garden of Government House. Under de Quincy the colony prospered. It was due to his enterprise that coffee and cotton were cultivated, the forest land being cleared to make way for the plantations.

With the abolition of slavery in 1834 the progress of Seychelles received a check. The labour situation was

relieved, however, by British warships landing the Negroes whom they had snatched from the slave-raiders. The islands were still under Mauritius and remained so until 1872. Then the experiment was tried of granting larger local powers, for Mauritius was nearly a thousand miles away, and administration at that distance was bound to be inconvenient. The new system succeeded. The office of Administrator was created in 1888, and Executive and Legislative Councils were appointed. The step was fully justified by the increasing importance and prosperity of Mahé and Port Victoria. In 1903 the Administrator was made Governor, and Seychelles attained full status as an independent crown colony. To-day the Executive Council consists of four members and the Legislative Council of six.

In recent times the islands have won notoriety as the residence of famous exiles. Prempeh, the ex-king of the Ashanti, was transported there in 1897, but allowed to return to his own land in a private capacity after the Great War. In 1901 Mwanga, the troublesome chief of Uganda, was sent to Seychelles, where he died two years later.

The colony is chiefly valuable to-day, apart from its strategic and maritime importance, for its exports of copra, essential oils, and guano. Noteworthy also are the giant land tortoises, which exist on the Aldabra Group, 690 miles from Mahé. Praslin, and to a lesser extent Mahé itself, is the home of the unique double coco-nut, the Coco de Mer, which is found nowhere else in the world. It is indeed a miniature wonderland of its own, this isolated possession of Britain's in the Indian Ocean, whose genial climate and rustic beauty are enticing an increasing number of visitors and tourists.

MAURITIUS

Nearly a thousand miles from Seychelles and 500 miles east of Madagascar lies the beautiful oceanic island of Mauritius, in size a little smaller than the county of Surrey. It is a land of low-lying coastal strips, and a mountainous interior, which reaches a height of 2,700 feet in Piton de la Rivière Noire. Grim and rugged mountain peaks stand sentinel over the thickly wooded valleys, into which the rushing torrents pour, often leaping over great waterfalls in their hurry. The prodigal vegetation of the tropics clothes the island in a flowing robe, which contrasts strikingly with the neat vesture of the plantations.

To the European, Mauritius looks more beautiful than it feels. The climate is hot and tropical, and in Port Louis and the lower altitudes is unhealthy for the white man. But he can exist fairly comfortably in the higher mountain regions. The hottest months are from December to April, when a temperature of 100 degrees in the shade is fairly common. It is then that all those who can, fly to the cooler air of the hills. The most troublesome feature of the Mauritius climate is not the heat, but the hurricane. The island has suffered terribly from cyclonic disturbances. The visitation of 1892 caused distressful havoc; and in March, 1930, a two-days hurricane did serious damage to the sugar plantations.

The population of Mauritius—that is, the permanent residents; there is a considerable floating population as well—is over 410,000. The people are divided into two very distinct groups: one, those of European descent; two, those with Asiatic-African forebears. The Europeans, who call themselves creole, are the

descendants of the French families who first colonised the island. They form one of the most numerous body of white colonists within the tropics. Unfortunately, their ranks are to-day growing thinner—a great loss to Mauritius, since many of them are people of a high standard of intelligence. In the Asiatic-African group, which is by far the larger, the great majority are Indians. Indians, indeed, account for some sixty per cent. of the total population. They emigrated to Mauritius during the last century, attracted by the opportunities of making a good livelihood on the sugar plantations.

Some 60,000 of the Mauritians live in the capital town of Port Louis. This excellent harbour lies on the north-west coast and can accommodate the biggest ships sailing those seas. Through the port flows all the trade of the island. This is very considerable, for the land is almost wholly devoted to the growing of sugar, and nearly all food and necessities of life have to be imported. India supplies a large proportion of the rice and grain, and South Africa a useful share of the other imports. Indeed, 88 per cent. of the trade is with the British Empire. Mauritius is so suitable in soil and climate for sugar that about four-fifths of its cultivated area is devoted to the crop, and the plains are now little more than one huge plantation. This looks extremely attractive from the deck of a ship approaching the island and has, in truth, proved remarkably profitable, but the disadvantage of depending on one industry alone has caused periods of depression when prices have dropped in the world markets. Experience has impressed the Mauritians with the wisdom of establishing secondary industries; and aloe fibre, rum, copra, coco-nut oil, tea, tobacco, and other enterprises have been started with encouraging results.

For Europeans Port Louis is not a desirable residence. Apart from the heat, there has always been the difficulty of satisfactory sanitation, due to the small tide in the harbour. The official and business heads mostly live in the hill resort of Curepipe, where they enjoy conditions that would not disgrace the north of Italy. Curepipe is 1,800 feet above the sea and twenty miles from Port Louis. There is rail connection between the two, for Britain has built no less than 155 miles of railway in the island.

It was, of course, a Portuguese again who discovered Mauritius. In 1505 the navigator, Mascarenhas, arrived, to find it uninhabited. Portugal kept it until nearly the end of the century, her name for it being *Ilha do Cerné*. In 1598 the Dutch arrived upon the scene, took possession of the island, and called it Mauritius after their stadholder, Count Maurice of Nassau. They built a fort at Grand Port and, in the 1640's, introduced a number of slaves and convicts with a view to developing the resources of the island. But no permanent settlement emerged from these activities, and in 1710 Holland abandoned it.

Mauritius did not remain abandoned for long. Five years later the East India Company of France landed on its deserted shores, hoisted their flag, and gave it the new name of *Ile de France*. These Frenchmen came from Madagascar and Mauritius's neighbouring island of Bourbon, now called Réunion, which had already begun to be colonised by French pioneers. An expedition commanded by Captain du Fresne added Mauritius to the growing French Empire.

The *Ile de France* enjoyed a somewhat precarious existence under the French East India Company, until the arrival in 1735 of its famous governor, Mahé de la

Bourdonnais, whom we have had occasion to mention more than once in connection with Seychelles. La Bourdonnais showed remarkable energy in exploiting the possibilities of the island. He built forts, made roads, cleared forest lands, founded Port Louis to replace the old capital of Port Bourbon, situated in a less convenient spot on the south-east coast, and above all, introduced sugar-planting and built it up to become the chief industry of the colony. Another service rendered by the governor won the deep gratitude of the colonists. Their lives and property were being constantly threatened by the runaway slaves, who were a perpetual trial and danger. La Bourdonnais rounded them up and freed the colony from these pests. Like many empire-builders, however, he received little thanks for his great work from his countrymen at home. His enemies caused him to be thrown into the Bastille, where he languished for three years before dying in piteous want.

In 1767 the French Crown took the Ile de France over from the East India Company, and the colony grew rapidly and enjoyed enviable prosperity. During the Napoleonic wars great use was made of it to attack the British merchantmen on their way to India, which then, of course, lay via the Cape. Britain thereupon determined to capture it in order to secure her communications. A strong military and naval force was dispatched from India for the purpose, and the Ile de France fell to the British in 1810. The capture released the great Australian explorer Captain Matthew Flinders, who had sailed into Port Louis in 1803, not knowing that Britain and France were again at war. He had been held a prisoner for seven years by the French governor, who confiscated all the charts made

during his wonderful circumnavigation of the Australian continent. These were later recovered.

The Ile de France was formally ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Paris, 1814, and the Dutch name of Mauritius was restored. But other things French were retained: the French laws and customs and the Roman Catholic religion; and, in consequence, even to-day, the French character of the colony persists.

The first British governor of Mauritius was Sir Robert Farquhar, who held office for thirteen years. He did a great deal to put down the slave trade in Madagascar natives and established friendly relations with that country. In 1834 came Britain's great gesture in freeing the slaves throughout the Empire, and Mauritius in common with many other colonies found a temporary check placed on her material progress. The planters received £2,000,000 in compensation, and Indian coolies were imported to take the place of the emancipated Negroes. They and their children left the island as they were supplanted in the labour field, and there is not in Mauritius, as there is, for example, in the West Indies, a large element descended from the old slave workers.

Mauritius has been a land of misfortunes. Not only had it to face in common with other growers of cane sugar the competition of the subsidised beet-sugar industry, but it suffered during the 19th century a series of distressing calamities. In 1854 an epidemic of cholera caused 17,000 deaths; in 1867 malarial fever carried off 30,000 of the population; in 1892 came a terrific hurricane, which destroyed many lives and much property; in the next year a large part of Port Louis was burnt to the ground; in 1918 the world-wide influenza epidemic swept over the island and claimed

11,000 victims; and in 1930 the hurricane returned and did its best to destroy the sugar plantations. But Mauritius has survived each one of these trials, and has held fast to her place among the world's greatest producers of sugar.

Much progress has been made in the colony with the introduction of representative institutions. After the island was wrested from the French, all power remained for some time in the hands of the governor. In 1832 a Legislative Council was granted, in which non-official members served. In 1885 certain of these members were elected by the people. To-day there is a Council of Government, composed of 27 members, of whom ten are elected on a moderate franchise. Port Louis returns two members and each of the country districts one.

Although the Seychelles Islands were made a separate colony in the latter part of the 19th century, and Coetivy was detached from Mauritius and transferred to them in 1908, the old Ile de France still has its own dependencies. Chief among them is the island of Rodrigues, 350 miles to the north-east. It is 42 square miles in area and has a population of nearly 10,000, which includes a small European community. The island, which is a very beautiful one, is encircled by a coral reef, through which there is only one channel, which leads to the little capital of Port Mathurin. A magistrate from Mauritius administers Rodrigues, whose people are mostly busy with the export of cattle, beans, salt fish and goats.

There are numerous scattered groups of coral islands in the Indian Ocean, over most of which Britain claims sovereignty. They are administered from Mauritius, who from time to time sends representatives to visit them; and these representatives enquire into labour and

other conditions, settle disputes and problems, and in other directions keep a fatherly eye on the islanders, who are chiefly concerned in producing coco-nut oil. The largest of the Coral Islands is Diego Garcia, which is one of what are called the Oil Islands, or alternatively, the Chagos Archipelago. It has 450 inhabitants and is important because it provides a good harbour on the direct route from the Red Sea to Australia. Mauritius's small dependencies lie at distances from her varying between 230 and 1,200 miles. Their total population is about 1,500.

CEYLON

Ceylon, one of the most important possessions of the British Crown, is often given the proud title of the Premier Colony. Its position, always of great strategic and commercial value, has grown even more so since the introduction of self-governing institutions into the Indian Empire. The island lies just south-east of the southern point of the Indian continent. It is almost joined on to India, for a chain of coral islands stretches across the shallow Gulf of Manaar, which separates it from its great neighbour. At one time Ceylon was so much a part of India that vessels from Calcutta to Europe had to skirt the island in their passage. Nowadays, however, a short cut between the two has been provided by the deepening of the Paumben Channel.

Ceylon is about the size of Ireland without Ulster, and has a population of $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions. It is made up of strongly contrasted elements, for which the interesting and unusual history of the island is responsible.

The ancient Greeks and Romans knew Ceylon as

Taprobane or Tamraparni, meaning "the island of dusky leaves." The Asiatics called it Lanka, "the resplendent isle." Its history is very old indeed—so old, it is impossible in its early chapters to disentangle fact from legend. The authentic story may be begun with the year 543 B.C. It was then that the first of Ceylon's recorded invasions occurred, when Vijaya led his Hindu followers from Northern India and established the Sinhalese dynasty, which was destined to last for 2,358 years. Vijaya married the daughter of one of the native chiefs, with whose assistance he brought all Ceylon under his control. Power slipped from the hands of the original inhabitants, who, according to some anthropologists, are represented to-day by the Veddahs, a small forest tribe who speak a distinct language of their own. Vijaya parcelled out his conquests among his leading supporters, some of whom ruled like feudal chiefs.

The Sinhalese brought with them a higher type of civilisation than anything the primitive people had known. They were expert agriculturists and well versed in the science of irrigation; and they established that system of village communities which remains the chief feature of the social structure in Ceylon. The Sinhalese, present day descendants of these invaders of nearly 2,500 years ago, are still the most numerous and important section of the population in the modern British colony. About 70 per cent. of the people speak the Sinhalese language. Originally Hindus, they were converted to Buddhism at the beginning of the third century through the eloquent preaching of Mahinda, the son of Asoka, the great Buddhist Emperor of India, who is sometimes described as "the Buddhist Constantine." This conversion was followed by the

establishment in Ceylon of Buddhist monasteries and the building of a colossal number of daghobas, which are dome-shaped shrines of stone containing sacred relics.

About three hundred years after the coming of the Sinhalese to Ceylon occurred the first of the Tamil invasions. The Tamils came from Southern India, and after long years of warfare established themselves in the northern parts of the island, where they still are. They are in the main Hindu in religion; and so fierce has been the rivalry between them and the Sinhalese that the history of Ceylon for hundreds of years is the tale of ceaseless conflicts between them, now one race, now the other, holding temporarily the advantage.

One dramatic story of these pre-European days in Ceylon deserves mention because its relics are still with us. In 459 A.D. the Tamils were oppressing the Sinhalese when Dhātu Sena, a country priest, called on his countrymen to throw off the hated yoke. His campaign was completely successful, and he became the national hero. Elected king, he excelled no less in peace than in war, and was responsible for constructing the famous Kalā Wewa, or Black Reservoir, which not only provided his capital with water, but irrigated the fields, bringing wealth and prosperity to his people. But Dhātu Sena had an ambitious son, Kasyapa, who plotted against him and took him prisoner. When the king refused to reveal the secret place of his treasure, the rebel son had him walled up alive. Another brother, loyal to his father and a refugee in India, was reported to be plotting a counter-revolution, and Kasyapa took measures for his defence. He chose as his tower of resistance Sigiri, or the Lion's Rock, an amazing pillar of granite which rises sheer from the surrounding plain

to a height of 500 feet. The summit consists of five or six acres of ground, and here Kasyapa built his palace and fortress, and prepared to defend himself against his father's avengers. For 17 years he withstood triumphantly a succession of sieges, but at last the parricide was slain in a battle fought on the plains beneath his stronghold in 495 A.D. Sîgiri was rediscovered in 1835 by Major Forbes; and to-day the ruins of the palace are still there with the ladder path, wonderfully built by the engineers of Dhātu Sena, giving access to the lofty fortress, as it did in the old days. Repairs have, of course, been necessary to make this possible, but the original work has withstood in remarkable fashion the trying conditions of the Ceylonese climate.

In 1408 the Sinhalese suffered invasion from a new quarter. Burning with indignation at an insult offered to their envoy, the Chinese descended upon Ceylon and for thirty years held it in subjection. On their withdrawal, the island was split up into a number of small and separate kingdoms, and it was still in this condition when discovered by the white man.

The European period in Ceylon falls into three sections: the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the British. It was in 1505 that Francisco de Almeida and his Portuguese followers arrived and found the land divided into seven independent states. With the permission of the king of one of them, namely Kotta, the Portuguese built a fort at Colombo. So began their long struggle to subdue the native rulers, which never met with more than limited success. Portugal could claim some control over the flat coastlands, but in the mountainous interior her writ did not run. As a trading opportunity the Portuguese found Ceylon disappointing,

but they seem to have been keener on converting the people to Christianity than reaping profits from commerce. Their missionary zeal, with which is associated the revered name of St. Francis Xavier, met with most encouraging results. It is, indeed, due to their efforts that most of the Christians of Ceylon to-day are Roman Catholics; and due to them again that in the large towns the speech of the lower classes is a corrupt version of Portuguese.

In 1638 Portugal's hold on Ceylon came to be challenged by the Netherlands. In the next year the Portuguese saw their forts on the east coast razed to the ground, and in 1644 the important post of Negombo, on the coast north of Colombo, fell into Dutch hands. In 1656 Colombo itself was captured; and in 1658 the unhappy Portuguese were driven from their last foothold at Jaffna.

The Dutch went about the government of Ceylon in a much more subtle manner than the Portuguese. Instead of antagonising the native rulers by trying to lord it over them, they used judicious flattery, were less concerned about their own dignity, and treated with them more or less as equals. Towards the people generally the new masters were forbearing and tolerant; and by these means not only did they greatly extend European influence and prestige, but built up for themselves a lucrative trade with the interior, where the Portuguese had altogether failed. Holland conferred great benefits on Ceylon. She introduced education, undertook public works on an ambitious scale, and established a sound judicial system. As evidence of the good and permanent results of her occupation, the law of Ceylon is still the Roman-Dutch law implanted at this period.

In the Napoleonic wars Holland, disastrously for her overseas possessions, sided with France against Britain. Her colonies lay open to attack by the British Fleet, and Ceylon was one of those lost to her. A force was dispatched against it by the East India Company, and all the forts were quickly in British hands. The Dutch resistance was of the feeblest kind and unworthy of their great history as an imperial power. The formal cession was embodied in the Treaty of Amiens, 1802; and the new possession, which had been temporarily annexed to the Presidency of Madras—an association neither convenient nor satisfactory and abhorred by the natives—was made a crown colony.

The colonial government did not exert its authority over the whole of the island. In the centre of Ceylon the Sinhalese king still ruled the independent kingdom of Kandy. But the last of the dynasty, Sri Vikrama Raja Sinha, proved so cruel and vicious a tyrant that his own subjects beseeched the British to free them from his misrule. Disaffection had been rife for some years, and the king's efforts to suppress it by the most revolting punishments had failed. All he succeeded in doing was to alienate his subordinate chiefs, who in 1815 petitioned the British to put an end to a situation that had grown intolerable. The British accordingly proceeded against Kandy, captured and exiled the king, and extended their sway over the whole of the island. Thus ended the Sinhalese Dynasty, which had been in existence for twenty-three centuries.

Britain, as mistress of Ceylon, made her policy clear. She guaranteed the civil and religious liberties of the people; she declared her full recognition of Buddhism as the principal religion and undertook to protect its priests and its temples; and she promised to devote the

dues and revenues, formerly paid to the Sinhalese rulers, to the better government of the country. This enlightened programme was calculated to win the consent of the native population to the new conditions; and except for trouble in the interior in 1817 and two minor disturbances in the 1840's, Ceylon has enjoyed peace and prosperity under the British Crown.

No doubt Ceylon, like other parts of the British Empire, is destined to come in time to full responsible government. Much progress has been made by the introduction of a constitution more advanced than in any British colony. To-day the Governor is assisted by a State Council consisting of fifty members, elected on a territorial basis, with eight nominated unofficial members, and three Officers of State, who are the Chief Secretary and the Legal and Financial Secretaries. The Council divides itself into seven Executive Committees to deal with external affairs, defence, law and finance, and the public services, each committee meeting under the chairmanship of the appropriate Minister of State. The island is divided also into nine provinces, over each of which a government agent presides. The large towns have their own local authority, and in the village communities the old native councils still control parochial matters.

In its capital of Colombo Ceylon has one of the most important ports of call in the whole of the East. The harbour has been artificially constructed by throwing out enormous breakwaters to enclose an area of 600 acres. It is situated at the mouth of the river Kelani on the west coast of the island. The old fortifications were demolished many years ago, but there are still memorials of our Portuguese and Dutch predecessors, notably the banqueting hall of the Dutch governors

which is now the Garrison Church of St. Peter. The early missionary work of the Portuguese has its modern fruitage in the splendid Roman Catholic cathedral of St. Lucia. The Buddhists are rightly proud of the Kotahena Temple. The surrounding country is flat but Colombo has one particularly beautiful natural feature. This is the great freshwater lake, hemmed with luxuriant vegetation, which is separated from the sea only by a narrow isthmus. Colombo is a large city, whose population will soon pass the 300,000 mark.

In the centre of the island is Kandy, the ancient capital of the native kings. It is 75 miles by rail from Colombo and 1,730 feet above sea level. Its present population is between 36,000 and 37,000. The situation is a beautiful one, for it stretches along the shores of an artificial lake constructed by the last king of Kandy in 1806, and is surrounded by a circle of charming hills. The town itself is a queer mixture of Anglo-Indian bungalows, palaces, pagodas, and unpretentious native huts. Among the temples, Buddhist and Brahman, the Dalada Balagawa is the most famous and revered. As the name indicates to one who knows the native language, this holy place claims to have in its possession, enclosed in a golden casket, a tooth of Buddha. Neither the Portuguese nor the Dutch were able to make themselves masters of Kandy, and a British garrison was massacred before Britain's hold upon it was secure. To-day, however, this pretty tropical town of the hill country is peaceful and contented.

Other interesting towns of Ceylon include Galle, a port in the extreme south-west. It stands on a rocky promontory and possesses a good harbour. With a population of nearly 40,000 it ranks third in the colony after Colombo and Jaffna. The latter, which is situated

in the extreme north, has 46,000 inhabitants. It was Portugal's last stronghold, but to-day shows more relics of the Dutch occupation than any other town in Ceylon. On the north-east coast there is a fine natural harbour at Trincomalie. For long it has been neglected, but to-day it is being converted into a naval base supplementary to Singapore. Colombo as Ceylon's port is now supreme, and to it even such places as Galle are compelled to play second fiddle.

The climate of Ceylon varies greatly. On the whole, tropical though it is, Europeans do not find it unhealthy except in the low-lying jungle. It is very hot in April and May, but the fierce heat of the plains of India is not encountered. The coolest months are December and January. The rainfall is very uneven, due to the monsoons and the mountains. Some of the mountains reach a considerable height. The highest in the island is Pedrutalagala, 8,296 feet. It was a great surprise to everyone who was familiar with Ceylon when it was found that Pedrutalagala out-topped them all. The general belief was that Adam's Peak was the highest. And yet it is actually nearly a thousand feet less. But Adam's Peak is so conspicuous an object that all were deceived. Moreover, the mountain has long been famous as a place of pilgrimage. In the lofty rock which crowns its summit is a hollow that resembles the impression of a human foot. The various religions of Ceylon have their own superstitions regarding it. The Brahmans say it is the footprint of Siva; the Buddhists, of course, of Buddha; the Moslems of Adam; and even the Christians put forward claims of their own, but they cannot agree upon an individual.

Ceylon is pre-eminently agricultural. A large part of the area under cultivation—only about one-fifth of

the whole island—is devoted to rice, the staple food of the people. Prosperity has been brought to the colony by the production and export of tea and rubber, although both these commodities are peculiarly subject to conditions in the world markets, and fluctuations in trade have meant difficult times for Ceylon now and then. To-day the island ranks third in the production of tea after China and India, her annual total averaging about 100,000 tons, and third again, after British Malaya and the Netherlands Indies in the production of rubber, with some 50,000 tons. After tea and rubber come coco-nuts, both fresh and dessicated, followed by several subsidiary export lines, including products of the coconut palm, plumbago, cacao, and cinnamon. Salt is produced and is a government monopoly. The natives are skilled in gold and silver work, ivory and tortoise-shell, weaving, pottery, basket- and mat-making, metals and lacquer. But these are industries of minor importance. Precious stones are found in fair quantity, chiefly rubies and sapphires; and the pearl-fishing in the Gulf of Manaar produces good specimens at the right season.

An interesting business is that of taming the wild elephants, of which there are many herds roaming the unpeopled stretches of the interior. The Ceylon species is inferior to the noble elephants of India and Africa, but is intelligent, strong, and easily trained. Sometimes the wild herds raid the plantations, doing extensive damage; and traps, called "corrals," are built to catch them. A Ceylon elephant is not in captivity long before he can be used in the business of rounding up his still free brother, a job he appears to enjoy.

Ceylon has one dependency in the Maldivé Archipelago, a group of thirteen coral islands lying 400 miles

to the south-west. Until 1932 the islands were ruled by an hereditary sultan, but in that year a new constitution was introduced under which the Sultan is elected and assisted in the government by a People's Assembly. This body consists of 33 members, 5 nominated and 28 elected. The Sultan, who resides on the island of Malé, selects the Prime Minister, who in turn chooses colleagues to complete a cabinet of four. This constitution has only recently been brought into effect.

The Maldiv Islands, about the year 1645, sought the help of Ceylon against marauding pirates, and in return for a yearly tribute the protecting arm of Colombo's government, whatever its race, has been kept around the Sultan's people. These are a civilised community, about 80,000 in number, Moslems in religion, and astute traders and clever navigators. Their island home is covered with the coco-nut palm, and their main exports consist of coco-nut oil, coir, cowries, dried fish and tortoise-shell. They produce also millet, fruits, and nuts of the edible kind.

The islanders live a free and independent existence; enjoying the protection of the British, but little troubled by their presence, for the climate is extremely unhealthy to the white man.

CHAPTER VIII

MALAYA

THE Malay Peninsula is an elongated stretch of territory, separating the Indian Ocean and the China Sea, and is shaped like the giant tongue of some fantastic animal. From the borders of Siam in the north to the island of Singapore in the south, it is 464 miles long. At no part does it exceed 216 miles in width, and in places is not much more than a fifth of that. The whole of the southern portion of the peninsula is to-day beneath British control and influence, and is known as British Malaya as opposed to the Malay Archipelago, which is a possession of Holland.

British Malaya is divided into three distinct portions, namely, the Colony of the Straits Settlements, the Federated Malay States, and other Malay States which are not federated, but enjoy British protection. The division is somewhat confusing, because it is political and administrative and has little to do with geography. The component parts of the colony, the federation, and the protectorate group are in no case a homogeneous whole, but are scattered and intermingled up and down the Peninsula.

The colony of the Straits Settlements consists of the island and town of Singapore, off the southern tip of the peninsula; Malacca, on the west coast, 110 miles north-west of Singapore; the island of Penang, off the west coast also, with a mainland territory attached to it, called Province Wellesley, situated 240 miles north-west

of Malacca; and the Island of Labuan, not near the Malay Peninsula at all, but off the coast of Borneo, 725 miles north-east of Singapore. The capital of these widely distributed settlements is Singapore itself.

The Federated Malay States consist of Perak, Selangor and Negri Sembilan, native states on the west coast of the peninsula, lying between the settlements of Malacca and Penang; and the State of Pahang on the east coast. The Non-Federated Malay States begin with Johore in the extreme south, opposite the island of Singapore, and include Kedah and Perlis, north of Penang, on the west coast, and on the east, Trengganu and Kelantan, north of the federated State of Pahang. The whole extent of British Malaya is rather larger than England and the population approximates five millions with the Europeans numbering over 25,000.

The creation of a new and valuable British possession in this part of the world has been largely the work of the concluding 25 years of last century and the first two decades of this. In Malaya Britain arrived late in the field, for it was in 1511 that Malacca passed into European hands and has remained in them ever since. To those familiar with the history of our Empire it will be almost superfluous to say that these Europeans were Portuguese. Malacca attracted them because, through the efforts of Arabs and Persians, who converted the Malays to Mohammedanism, it had become the great distributing centre for the spices of the East Indies. It was not taken at once; but when it did fall, the spice trade fell with it into the Portuguese lap. Satisfied with possessing the monopoly of this lucrative business, Portugal did not attempt to extend her territory in Malaya. She was content to hold on to Malacca until what happened in the rest of the East happened there,

and her settlers were ousted by the Dutch. The date of that was 1641.

For nearly a century and a half Holland was supreme on the Malaya Peninsula as she was supreme in the Malay Archipelago. She could not, however, escape the energetic competition of Britain here any more than she could in her other parts of the world, and as a result of squabbles at one time and agreements at another between the two powers, the Peninsula fell to Britain, and the Archipelago remained Dutch.

It was in 1786 that Britain obtained a permanent footing in Malaya. In that year Penang, the oldest of the Straits Settlements, was founded, the island being ceded by the Sultan of the neighbouring territory of Kedah to the East India Company. In 1795 Malacca was taken from the Dutch, then allied with France against us. Later it was handed back to Holland, but was once again restored to Britain in 1824. In 1819, Stamford Raffles, a far-sighted official of the East India Company, executed his great stroke of genius by persuading the Sultan of Johore to cede the then uninhabited island of Singapore, which he foresaw could be made into the great port of call between India and China. In 1826 these three possessions, Penang, Malacca and Singapore, were united as the Straits Settlements and placed under the Government of India. They remained so until 1867 when the Colonial Office took them over. There have been additions to the colony since those days. In 1886 the Cocos Islands in the Indian Ocean were attached to them for administration; in 1889, Christmas Island, south of Java was added, and in 1907 Labuan, off the Borneo Coast, was incorporated with Singapore, to be given the status of a separate settlement in 1912.

In the last quarter of the 19th century a long stride forward was taken by Britain in Malaya. In 1874 the native state of Perak was brought under British protection. This step was followed by the declaration of protectorates over Selangor, Sungai Ujong and a cluster of small states which are known now as the Negri Sembilan, or Nine States, and over Pahang. In 1896 these four were federated for matters of common interest and have now a Federal Council, ruling from the federal capital of Kuala Lumpur in Selangor.

In 1902 Britain concluded a treaty with Siam which acknowledged that the northern Malay States lay within the Siamese sphere of influence. However, seven years later, Siam was persuaded to cede her suzerain rights over Kelantan, Trengganu, Kedah and Perlis, and the States came under British protection. Meanwhile Britain had established friendly contact with the independent native state of Johore in the extreme south, and the Sultan agreed to accept the full implications of British protection in 1914. Such in outline is the story of Malaya and the European.

The Malay Peninsula has long ceased to be attractive as the distributing centre of the spice trade. To-day there are other reasons why this long, straggling tongue of land with its mountain backbone, its impenetrable forests, and its wealth of rivers is a good trading proposition for Britain. It has three great and lucrative industries: rubber, tin, and coco-nuts. At the present time British Malaya is at the head of all the rubber-producing countries of the world, supplying, according to the latest returns, well over a third of the total output.

It is an interesting story how the seeds of the rubber tree were gathered in their original home of South

America, rushed over to Kew Gardens, sown for most of them to die, nursed carefully when they did propagate, and then transported again to the British colonies of the East. Many were the failures and disappointments to begin with. Seeds sent originally to Singapore did not survive; but a few dispatched to Penang thrived, remarkable to relate, in the garden of Government House. From this small beginning the rubber tree spread over the Malay Peninsula, until most of the jungle-cleared and newly-cultivated portions are to-day one vast rubber plantation.

The second industry of Malaya, tin, was first started by the Chinese. Here are the largest deposits of alluvial tin in the world; and the British Malayan possessions now produce nearly half the world's yield of tin ore and more than half of the smelted tin. The bulk of the ore comes from the Federated Malay States. During the years of the slump which succeeded the World War, the Government was forced to come to the rescue of the industry and buy up the tin at a figure that enabled the mining concerns to carry on.

The third great industry is coco-nuts. It is, of course, much older than rubber, which is a development of the last thirty years, and older again than tin. The coco-nut palm has for long ages been the main support of life to the Malayan native. It has given him food, drink, oil for cooking, wood for his houses, leaves for basket-making, and other necessities. Commercially it has produced for export copra, or the dried kernel, from which coco-nut oil is obtained for, among other things, the manufacture of soap, and coir or fibre for making ropes, doormats, and coarse brushes.

The five million inhabitants of British Malaya contain men and women of many races. There are

Chinese, the most numerous section, Malays, Indians, Eurasians, and primitive tribes roaming the dark forests. The Chinese and Indians have been attracted to the Peninsula by the industrial opportunities. They are the chief workers in the tin mines and on the rubber plantations. Since rubber made such rapid progress, Chinese immigration has advanced by leaps and bounds.

The real natives of the country are the Malays. How long they have made the Peninsula their home is not exactly known, but their invasion from the direction of the Archipelago is believed to have taken place in comparatively recent times. The race extends also over parts of Borneo, though where they originally came from is one of those unsolved questions which may be answered, or may not, by future discoveries. In religion they are Sunni Mohammedans and were, it would seem, converted by those followers of the Prophet who came from Arabia and Persia seeking the spices before the European era opened. They are a maritime people and do not wander far from the seaboard or the banks of the rivers. On the coasts they are pirates turned fishermen, and are experts in boat-building—junks for the high seas and sampans for the inland waterways. In the interior the Malays keep close to the rivers. The Peninsula is exceptionally well watered. The largest of the streams is the Pahang, 330 miles. It gives its name to the native state, as, indeed, do most of the others, such as the Perak, the Kelantan, the Trengganu, the Perlis, and so forth. The Malays build their houses on piles, plant coco-nut palms and betel-nuts, as well as fruit trees, around their dwellings, and inland from their villages cultivate fields of rice. The thick almost impenetrable jungle is left to the primitive forests tribes,

few in number, and to the elephant, panther, wild cat, snakes, and monkeys. Many of these dark, mysterious forests have never heard the footfall of man.

The Malays are not fond of hard work. Courteous and pleasant in their manner, they are lovers of ease and woefully improvident. They have a certain self-respect and are staunchly loyal to their leaders. But they are shameless hedonists, regard money as something to be spent immediately, and are not too scrupulous how they get hold of it. They once had a reputation as fighters, and can still hold their own in a scrap with the Chinese, but to-day conditions of life have been made easy for them, and their natural indolence is given full play. They make their own silk and cotton clothing, and have a preference for bright colours. They have also some skill in the manufacture of weapons and utensils. The British Protectorate has proved congenial to the Malay, for while he has not been much disturbed in his old way of life, he is securely shielded from his enemies.

The opportunities in Malaya for the young Briton, ambitious to serve his country and empire and to make his own way in the world, are wide. But life is not too easy. The climate is hot, especially at Singapore, and its humidity makes it oppressive. The "sumatras," or violent gusts of wind, are accompanied by torrential downpours, which, rather than persistent rain, account for the many inches of the annual fall. Europeans find Malaya relaxing, and if one is not to give way to a sense of enervation, it is necessary to take oneself firmly in hand and keep to a regular routine in food and exercise. Good health is then probable, provided that a holiday at home every five years or so is insisted upon.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

Many people without personal experience of the East find it quite difficult to remember off-hand to which group the various states and territories in the Malay Peninsula belong; and it is unnecessary, therefore, to apologise for repeating the names as each part of the country comes to be considered. The Straits Settlements, then, consist of the island of Singapore with the Cocos Islands and Christmas Island as dependencies, Penang Island with Province Wellesley, Malacca, and Labuan.

The area of the colony is 1,356 square miles and the population, $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions. The Chinese predominate, particularly in the city of Singapore. In all the settlements there are some 775,000 Chinese as compared with 300,000 Malays. Next come the Indians numbering 142,000; then the 12,500 Eurasians; while an astonishing admixture of races makes up the balance. Indeed, one may meet in the streets of Singapore representatives of very nearly every race of the East. The Europeans in the colony barely reach 15,000.

The government of the crown colony consists of the Governor, who holds the additional offices of High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States and High Commissioner for the Malay States which are not federated, assisted by an Executive Council of eleven members and a Legislative Council of thirteen ex-officio members, 11 nominated unofficial members, and two members who are elected by the Chambers of Commerce at Penang and Singapore.

The colony's mainstay is rubber, followed by tin, followed in turn by motor spirit, copra, rice and pineapples. The trade of Singapore and Penang, which

to-day has reached enormous proportions, is mainly that of collecting and distributing goods through the Archipelago and adjacent countries. A great deal of time and money has been spent on improving the colony's communications. There are a thousand miles of good metalled roads, besides secondary roads and bridle paths. Singapore, Malacca, and Province Wellesley are connected by rail with the other States of the Peninsula, federated and non-federated, and there is through communication with Bangkok, the capital of Siam. Mile upon mile of this arterial line is fringed with rubber estates, which have increased to a remarkable degree since the great rubber boom of 1909. Indeed, plantations have multiplied so rapidly both in Malaya and the Netherlands Indies that at times the market is glutted, bringing a serious fall in prices; and Britain and Holland have to work together to restrict production until conditions are more or less righted.

Perhaps the most exciting development in recent years has been the linking up of the Straits Settlements with many parts of the world by air. Not only the Imperial Airways of Britain, but the Royal Netherlands Airways also, have provided comfortable, fast and efficient services connecting Singapore and Penang with London and Amsterdam. There is an important Singapore-Java service; the continuation of the great Empire line, Singapore to Australia and New Zealand; and another useful line in the Penang-Hong Kong service.

SINGAPORE

The miracle of the Straits Settlements is Singapore. Its creation is one of the stirring romances of the Empire, and a few words about its honoured founder are essen-

tial. Stamford Raffles entered the service of the East India Company when he was only fourteen years old. After working in the London office for ten years, he went out to Penang in 1805, and during the next twenty years became the champion of British interests in Malaya in face of the keen competition of the Dutch. He used his gift of languages to master the Malayan tongue, and soon became so great an expert in affairs to do with the Peninsula and Archipelago, that he was employed in responsible duties by the Governor-General of India himself. It was his local knowledge that was largely responsible for the successful seizure of Java, Holland being then at war with Britain; and as a reward he was made lieutenant-governor of the new dependency. His administration was characterised by energy and efficiency.

At the end of the Napoleonic wars, however, the British Government was anxious to come to terms with Holland and agreed in 1818 to restore Java, as well as Malacca, which had been captured from her in 1805. Raffles protested at what he considered a blunder, and he was proved right when Malacca became British again in 1824. Java, however, remained permanently under the Dutch flag. Although Raffles' advice had not been followed in this case, his excellent work for Britain was recognised and rewarded with a knighthood. But his greatest achievement was yet to come. He realised fully the strength of the Dutch position in the Archipelago, for in the early days of their empire-building they had occupied all of what they considered to be the points of strategic importance. But one they had overlooked, and this Raffles proceeded to secure for Britain.

At the foot of the Malay Peninsula lay the island of Singapore. It was 26 miles long and 14 miles wide,

covered with tropical forest, and uninhabited save by a few Malay fishermen. It did not look an attractive proposition, but Raffles' vision saw it as a great clearing-house for trade halfway between China and India and serving those great countries as well as Siam, the Malay Peninsula, the Archipelago, New Guinea, and Australia. His arguments convinced the heads of the East India Company, and he was given a free hand. The island was under the sovereignty of the Sultan of Johore, the native state on the mainland across the narrow channel, at points less than three-quarters of a mile broad. Raffles easily persuaded the Sultan to cede the island, and he himself hauled up the flag in the early weeks of 1819. Singapore had enjoyed days of prosperity before this. It was an important Malay city in the 14th century, but about 1365 was attacked and destroyed by the Javanese. For four and a half centuries it lay a desolate waste until it was called back to life and activity by the courage and imagination of a British pioneer. To-day, on that neglected island, stands a city of 545,000 inhabitants, the capital of a thriving colony, one of the greatest ports measured by the extent of its shipping in the whole world, and a naval base of the first magnitude, which is the eastern pillar of the British imperial structure.

For the first few years Singapore was a dependency of Fort Marlborough, Bencoolen, Sumatra, of which its founder was Lieut.-Governor. When Bencoolen was returned to Holland, the Dutch raised no objections to the cession to Britain in perpetuity of Singapore Island. It was then placed in the charge of the Indian Government, and in 1826 was amalgamated with Penang and Malacca to form the Straits Settlements. In that year Sir Stamford Raffles died.

The flourishing town of Singapore, the first free port in the East, lies on the south-east coast of Singapore Island. It is not, however, this great emporium of trade, but the mighty naval base which Britain has just completed on the north coast of the island that has brought Malaya and the Straits Settlements so much into the news of recent years. During the World War British interests in the Far East were left largely in the care of Japan; and in view of the preoccupation of Europe, the Japanese seized the opportunity to build up a formidable power in the Western Pacific. After the War, an attempt made by Britain, America and Japan to limit armaments led to the Washington Treaty by which the old Anglo-Japanese Treaty of Alliance was superseded. Unfortunately for Britain's position, she found the new arrangement greatly to her disadvantage. Her vast trading and financial interests in China, her possessions in Borneo and New Guinea, the great daughter-nations of Australia and New Zealand, and British influence in the Indian Ocean, were not protected by adequate armed power and were indeed faced with increasing armaments by a people whose attitude was becoming less and less friendly.

In these circumstances Britain decided to build and equip a great naval, air and military base, modern and up-to-date in every respect, which should bring security and self-reliance to the Empire in Asia and Australasia. In those early days of peace, when another war seemed a remote possibility, there was considerable discussion as to whether such a project was really necessary. The policy of Japan, obviously determined to dominate that portion of the globe, decided the issue. The next step was to choose the right location, and the island of Singapore was selected as possessing the greatest strategical

advantages. It was 1,435 miles from Hong Kong, 1,900 from Port Darwin in Australia, 1,565 from Colombo, 1,150 from Rangoon and 1,665 from Calcutta. Moreover, it was 8,200 miles from England, a distance that showed how certain it was that forces dispatched from home in a crisis must arrive too late. A base at Singapore, which could serve in all essentials a large fleet and air force, would deter any threat of aggression. Malaya, Hong Kong, New Zealand and Australia were strongly in favour and were ready to contribute to the cost, which, it was realised, would be heavy.

The strategic position of Singapore island commended itself to the builders of the new naval base far more than the actual ground on which it was to be constructed. The choice of the Straits of Johore, which separate Singapore Island from the mainland of the peninsula, did not appear at all a wise one to those who actually lived in the Straits Settlements themselves. The whole site was covered with impenetrable jungle of such density as only the tropics can produce. Along the seaboard were mangrove swamps of slimy mud, fit only for the habitation of crocodiles. The climate was forbidding, with a temperature that was seldom less than 80 degrees in the shade and often approaching 100°, and an average rainfall of 100 inches per annum, which made the atmosphere humid and oppressive. Insects and snakes added their objections; and many people were fearful and dubious as the great scheme was inaugurated.

There were periods when work was stopped and other periods when it was accelerated, according to the difficulties of the international situation and the complexion of the government in office at home. But at last, in 1938, the great base was finished and ready for service,

if not wholly completed, and a dangerous period of British weakness in the East was brought to an end. The cost to that date amounted to £20,000,000, to which the Federated Malay States contributed £2,000,000, New Zealand £1,000,000, and Hong Kong £250,000. The Sultan of Johore came forward with a gift of £500,000, and his generosity was evidence of the importance attached to the new base by the people of Malaya. Australia also had a contribution ready, but when she offered it, a Socialist Government in London had ceased work at Singapore, and the money was devoted to the equally important matter of modernising the Australian fleet.

With the opening of the huge graving dock, which can take much larger battleships than any at present afloat, the Singapore base came into commission. The Sultans of the Malay States were present at the ceremony and expressed their wonder and satisfaction at the engineering miracle which had conjured an impregnable stronghold out of a tangled jungle. The base is for defence. It guards the one safe passage from the China Sea into the Indian Ocean. It is 2,500 miles from Japan and cannot be said to threaten that power. It would be an extremely difficult and dangerous place to attack. Before reaching the dockyard itself, a hostile fleet would have to sail 12 miles up the Johore Strait from the east, with hills on one side and islands on the other, both heavily gunned. Moreover, the gun emplacements are so craftily hidden in the tropical forest that to locate them would be well nigh impossible. From the west approach is impracticable. There are rocks and shoals in the way, to say nothing of the great causeway which links Singapore to the mainland and carries road and railway to the north. In the Johore Strait

there is ample room for as large a fleet to ride at anchor as Britain is ever likely to need in those waters. There is a fine air base to correspond, and the civil air base close to Singapore city to supplement it in case of need; and further, there is full provision for the military garrison. Thus Singapore becomes to-day one of the key positions in the British Empire, and has been aptly described as "The Gibraltar of the East."

Singapore has two dependencies in the Cocos Islands, also called the Keeling Islands, and Christmas Island. The Cocos group consists of 20 small coral islands, 700 miles the other side of Sumatra and 1,200 miles from Singapore itself. This isolated possession in the Indian Ocean was declared to be British in 1857. Twenty-one years later it was placed under Ceylon, but in 1886 it came under the control of the governor of the Straits Settlements, to which it was annexed and incorporated with Singapore in 1903. The largest of the islands is only five miles long by a quarter of a mile wide, but the extensive coco-nut plantations are valuable, and the 1,200 or so inhabitants busy themselves with the export of the copra, nuts and oil.

Christmas Island, about 60 square miles, lies 223 miles to the south of Java, and is some 530 miles from the Cocos Group. It was placed under the governor of the Straits Settlements in 1889, and attached to Singapore in 1900. Formerly it had been uninhabited, but an expedition landed there in 1887 and brought away mineralogical samples which on examination were found to contain specimens of nearly pure phosphate of lime. It was this discovery that led to the British annexation, and this it is that employs most of the 1,250 people on the island to-day. A District Officer of the Malayan Civil Service is stationed there to administer it, and the

Christmas Island Phosphate Company works the extensive phosphate deposits.

PENANG

Penang is the oldest as well as the most northerly of the Straits Settlements. It is 350 miles from the colony's capital of Singapore and commands the western entrance to the Straits of Malacca, as Singapore commands the eastern. It was the earliest British settlement in Malaya, the East India Company receiving a cession of Penang Island from the Sultan of Kedah in 1786. The investment was a good one, for to-day the capital and port of George Town is the great emporium for the northern parts of Dutch Sumatra and of the most prosperous districts of the Malay Peninsula.

Penang Island, sometimes called Prince of Wales Island, is not quite so large as the Isle of Wight and has a population of 220,000. Across the strait, two miles at its narrowest, is the mainland territory called Province Wellesley, which is incorporated in the settlement. The Sultan of Kedah was persuaded to cede this to the East India Company in 1800, though some of the land south of the Krian river was acquired more recently. Province Wellesley is a most fertile stretch of country supporting a population of 155,000 on its 290 square miles, and producing rice, rubber, spices, tapioca, and the useful products of the coco-nut plantations. The Province borders the sea for a distance of over 30 miles. Both Penang Island and Province Wellesley were part of the original colony of the Straits Settlements constituted in 1826.

MALACCA

Malacca is the largest of the Straits Settlements, the territory being 43 miles long and 25 wide and roughly the size of Hertfordshire. It lies on the western coast of the Peninsula between Penang and Singapore, though nearer to the latter. There are over 212,000 people in Malacca, 40,000 of whom live in Malacca town. This is a quaint place, made up of small, narrow streets, in which the traffic is mostly composed of that curious eastern wheeled vehicle called the ghari. The Chinese are the most well-to-do people among the quaint medley of races which go to make up Malacca's population. They have in some cases made themselves really rich men through their interests in the agricultural products, rubber, tapioca, and the like, which Malacca exports. The town has had a romantic but chequered history, and relics of the Portuguese and Dutch occupations still remain. It was the first spot in Malaya to attract the notice of the West, and the first to pass, and to pass permanently, into the hands of the Europeans. Relatively its importance has declined. Owing to the shallowness of its harbour, it can only serve the coastal trade, the ocean traffic having passed to the modern up-to-date ports of Penang and Singapore.

LABUAN

The island of Labuan, the fourth of the Straits Settlements, is a long way from its fellows, being six miles from the north coast of Borneo, a distance of 725 miles from Singapore. It possesses a fine harbour in Victoria, situated in the south-east of the island. In fact, the Malay word, "labuh-an," means "anchorage."

This natural harbour attracted the notice of Sir James Brooke, famous as the first white Raja of Sarawak, who persuaded the Sultan of Brunei to cede it to Britain in 1846. It was then uninhabited, and the hope was that the story of Singapore would repeat itself at Labuan. Occupation took place two years after the cession, but the island has not proved a second Singapore by any means, and thus far may be said to have disappointed.

Until 1890 Labuan was a colony on its own, kept going by grants from the Imperial Exchequer. In that year it was placed under the British North Borneo Company for administration purposes. The arrangement, however, did not please the colonists and was not satisfactory in other ways; consequently the island was incorporated with Singapore in 1907. Five years later it was created a separate settlement on its own.

Labuan is not large—only 35 square miles in area. There are not many more than 8,000 settlers, most of them Malay fishermen from Borneo with a quota of Chinese, Tamils, and other Eastern races. The Europeans are few, for the climate is hot and humid and far from healthy. About 1,500 of the population live in the little capital of Victoria, whose harbour is the trading centre for a large part of the Bornean coast. Much of the produce of Borneo and the Sulu Archipelago to the east passes through its docks. Labuan has a few products of its own, the chief of which is sago. Cattle and goats thrive on the island and are an additional source of income to the settlers.

THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

To recapitulate: the Federated Malay States consist of Pahang on the east coast of the Malay Peninsula

and, reading from north to south, Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan on the west. If they were all lumped together, they would just fit comfortably into Scotland. The population numbers approximately two millions. The largest state so far as area is concerned is Pahang, which is nearly twice the size of Wales, but with its 200,000 inhabitants is the most sparsely populated of the federation. Perak, just a little bigger than Wales, has the most people—880,000 or thereabouts. Selangor comes next with considerably over half a million in a space half the size of Yorkshire; and lastly, Negri Sembilan, or the Nine States, with a good quarter of a million in an area equal to Devonshire.

The most numerous of the people living in the Federated Malay States are the Chinese. There are 827,000 of them as compared with 665,000 of the Malays themselves. The Indians are not far short of 450,000; and there are several thousand Eurasians—all of which make for a very mixed population indeed, among whom the 9,000 Europeans would be lost if they were not the governing and controlling power.

As already stated, Britain began to take an interest in the States which now compose the federation in 1874. In that year the Sultans of Perak, Selangor, and the small state of Sungai Ujong, now part of the Negri Sembilan, were persuaded to accept British Residents, supported by a staff of European officers, whose duties were to offer advice to the native rulers and exercise certain important functions. Perak took a little time to settle down under this arrangement. The first British Resident was murdered with the connivance of the Sultan, who feared a loss of his own power. A punitive expedition soon restored order, and the offending Sultan was banished. In 1888 Raja Idris succeeded,

and this enlightened ruler worked smoothly with the British and brought to his subjects a time of peace and prosperity.

For six years before Britain intervened in Selangor a fierce civil war reduced the country to chaos. Pirates saw their opportunity and held the coasts at their mercy. The distracted Sultan was persuaded to accept the help of a British Resident, and normal conditions were very quickly restored. Under British protection Selangor has enjoyed undisturbed calm and an ever-increasing good fortune.

Meanwhile, on the east coast, squabbles among claimants to the throne were taking place in the State of Pahang. The successful candidate consented in 1887 to accept the help of British officials by allowing them to take control of external affairs. This was quickly followed by the newly-installed Sultan agreeing to a protectorate on the same terms as those accepted by the States on the west coast.

In 1895 Sungai Ujong and Jelebu were amalgamated with Johol, Rembau, and five other little States to form the Nine States of the small federation known as the Negri Sembilan. This was a revival of the ancient association, which is now included in the larger federation of Malay.

To-day every member of the Federated Malay States is still nominally under the rule of its native Sultan, but each State is administered according to the advice tendered by the British Resident. The Resident receives his orders from the Governor of the Straits Settlements, who holds the additional office of High Commissioner for the States of the federation. In all States the supreme authority is vested in the State Council, which is composed of the Sultan, the Resident, the Secretary

to the Resident, certain of the principal Malay Chiefs, and representatives of the Chinese and other communities.

The interests and outlook of the four Malay States were realised to be mainly identical, and the idea of a federation to deal with matters affecting them all was entertained at an early stage. In practice it soon became evident that such a scheme was most advisable, since it was found that Perak and Selangor were developing far more quickly than Negri Sembilan and Pahang. It was argued that by pooling resources more help could be given to the backward States and a greater degree of all round prosperity promoted. A scheme was accordingly drawn up, by which an administrative federation under a Chief Secretary to Government, with provision for a Federal Council, was to come into being. The Sultans agreed, and each State undertook to furnish a contingent of troops for service in Malaya in the event of war.

The Federal Council was created in 1909, and, after functioning for a number of years, was reconstituted in 1927. It consists to-day of the High Commissioner, acting as President, twelve other official members, and eleven unofficial members nominated by the High Commission with the approval of His Majesty the King.

The federal capital and seat of government is the city of Kuala Lumpur in the State of Selangor. It is a fine modern town in an ideal situation, and owes its astonishing growth to the important and progressive industries of rubber and coffee. Here is a place of great tropical beauty, the British section being likened to one large and lovely garden. There is a considerable white community, and an interesting social life and many forms of recreation are enjoyed. Perched up in the

mountains, the climate is pleasant and agreeable. The outlet on the sea, with which there is rail connection, is Port Swettenham, a harbour that has made great progress of recent years. Kuala Lumpur is on the grand trunk line from Singapore to Siam, and is, in fact, the administrative centre of the F.M.S. Railways. The journey to Singapore takes twelve hours. The population of the city is 136,000.

There are other large and important towns in the Federated Malay States. Ipoh of 65,000 inhabitants and Taiping of 38,000, both in Perak, owe their growth to tin mining. Seremban, with its 28,000 people, is the thriving capital of Negri Sembilan. Klang in Selangor, 27,000, is prospering through rubber, which has brought to Malaya an industry in which it now leads the world. Although rubber and tin are the two great raw materials exported, followed by the products of the coco-nut palms, the Federated Malay States have other irons in the fire. Some gold is found, chiefly in Pahang; coal is mined for local use in Selangor; rice, pineapples, coffee, tapioca, tea, areca nuts, tobacco, and gambier are further useful products which help to make the Malay Peninsula one of the most valuable possessions in the British Empire.

THE NON-FEDERATED MALAY STATES

The five Malay States, which are under British protection but outside the federation, start with Johore in the south, and continue with Trengganu and Kelantan, north of the federated State of Pahang on the east coast, and on the west, Kedah and Perlis, north of the settlement of Penang and Province Wellesley.

Johore has had a different history to that of the four states further north. The Sultan of the time was responsible for the cession of Singapore Island to Sir Stamford Raffles away back in 1819. In 1885 his successor agreed to receive within his kingdom a British Agent with the functions of a Consular Officer; but it was not until 1914 that this native State consented to come into line with the others in Malaya and accept full British protection. In that year a General Adviser was appointed with the approval of both parties, and a Council of State was allowed for, to which both European and Asiatic unofficial members are now appointed.

According to the treaty made with Siam in 1902, Trengganu, Kelantan, Kedah and Perlis were recognised as lying within the Siamese sphere of influence. The rulers sent periodically to the King of Siam the Bunga Mas, or Golden Flower, which was a token of respect and acknowledgment of his suzerainty, but did not envisage any encroachment upon their individual rights and local autonomy. In 1909 another Anglo-Siamese agreement was signed, under which Siam surrendered her right to receive the Bunga Mas and agreed to the passing of her old dependencies under British protection. The States north of Kelantan and Perlis she retained within her own sphere. Under the new arrangement the Sultans of the four States were advised by British officials, appointed by the British Government, and assisted in administration by State Councils. The Mohammedan religion, the religion of the Malay population, was safeguarded; and trade and commerce were facilitated by the adoption of the same currency and regulations as prevailed in the Straits Settlements, with which the bulk of their business was done.

The State of Johore occupies an area about the size of Wales at the southern end of the Malay Peninsula, facing the island of Singapore. Its neighbours on the north are Malacca, Negri Sembilan, and Pahang. The Sultan rules over 630,000 people and realises that his interests are closely bound up with those of Britain, as witness his munificent gift of £500,000 to the cost of the Singapore naval base. His capital is Johore Bahru, a go-ahead city of nearly 100,000 inhabitants. The prosperity of Johore is largely dependent upon rubber. As one travels along the Johore State Railway, which runs for 120 miles through the centre of the country before linking up with the F.M.S. system, to which it has been leased, one passes a long succession of rubber estates on either side of the line. This great arterial railway actually starts at Singapore, crosses the Straits of Johore by the great causeway, and traversing Johore and other Malay States, eventually reaches Bangkok, the capital of Siam. In addition to rubber, Johore does a good trade in coco-nuts, tapioca and pineapples, and also plays an important part in Malaya's export of tin.

The State of Trengganu, on the east coast, north of the federated State of Pahang, is one of the most ancient in Malaya. In its 5,000 square miles of territory there are less than 200,000 people, for the interior is almost uninhabited. Most of the population live on the coast and earn their livelihood from the sea. About 14,000 reside in the capital, Kuala Trengganu, situated at the mouth of the Trengganu river, which gives the State its name. Communications inland depend upon the rivers, for there are no roads or railways; and these rivers, though numerous, are not navigable for any great distance. Thus a large part of Trengganu is unexplored

and unknown. The chief industries are agriculture and fishing. Rubber, as in other parts of Malaya, is the important item of export. Tin-mining is actively pursued, and the ore is sent abroad. The sea-dwellers profit by fish-curing and exporting the dried fish, and also have considerable skill in boat-building. An interesting fact is that Trengganu was the last part of the British Empire in which slavery could result from non-payment of a debt. The practice was abolished only in 1919.

The State of Kelantan, north-west of Trengganu, is rather larger than its neighbour, with an area of 5,750 square miles. It has, however, twice its population, the latest figure being 396,000. The only important town is Kota Bharu, which lies six miles from the mouth of the Kelantan river and has about 15,000 inhabitants. The Kelantan is the second largest river in Malaya, although its 120 miles is short compared with the 330 of the Pahang. The Kelantan, like many other streams, has christened the State. Little is known about the history of Kelantan, though the present ruling family have been occupants of the throne since 1790. Apparently Siam was often busy keeping order in this somewhat turbulent dependency during the long years it was under tribute to her.

The northern portion of Kelantan is flat and fertile. There agriculture flourishes. Rice is grown; there are large plantations of coco-nuts and betel-nuts; and live-stock, consisting of cattle, buffaloes, sheep, goats and poultry, are supported in considerable numbers. Rubber planting has, during the last thirty years, been added to these pursuits. The southern part of the State is mountainous country, and here tin and some gold are found. The building of the railway, which runs to the

Siamese border, has opened up this the larger part of the state and made it possible to utilise much of the land for rubber trees and the African oil-palm. The hills are believed to contain rich mineral resources, but these are at present unexploited. On the coast there is a thriving fishing industry, the Malays here, as elsewhere, using their native skill as seamen to good advantage.

The State of Kedah is the most populous of those outside the federation except Johore, having 475,000 inhabitants, the majority of them Malays. It is not, however, so large as Trengganu and Kelantan, being only 3,650 square miles in area. The capital has the interesting name of Alor Star. It is a fairly large town of 25,000 people, situated eight miles inland on the Kedah river. It is 70 miles from Penang by sea, and 10 miles less by rail.

Kedah has had an interesting and stirring history. It was founded by colonists from India in the year 1200 or thereabouts. When Malacca rose to be a power in the Peninsula, it was caught between it and Siam. The Portuguese on taking Malacca raided and burned Kedah's capital; and after that disaster, the ruler in his weakness fell tributary to the Siamese king. For a time Siam became disorganized; and it was during this period that the Sultan of Kedah turned to the British and leased the island of Penang to the East India Company. The King of Siam had, however, long re-established his authority over Kedah by the time it passed under British protection.

The chief crops grown in Kedah are rice in the north and coco-nuts and betel-nuts, as well as tapioca, in the south. The ubiquitous rubber tree has also been introduced. The State is well served in the matter of communications. The F.M.S. railway runs through the

country on its way to Siam, and there is an expanding system of good metalled roads.

The little State of Perlis lies north of Kedah, to which it once belonged. During a time of stress, it managed to establish its independence. It is only a little larger than Anglesey, with a population of about 52,000, over four-fifths of them Malays. The capital is Kangar, lying about a dozen miles up the Perlis river; and the State's boundaries only reach the sea round about the river mouth. Perlis is chiefly occupied in growing rice, which it exports together with its tin-ore. It contains also useful guano deposits.

British Malaya has had a remarkable history, and an equally remarkable future under the British flag is confidently predicted for it. The great rubber industry shows how profitably the country's wonderful opportunities may be exploited; and now that the great naval base at Singapore guards it from the jealousy of rival powers, increasingly good returns may be expected from the investment of British brains, capital and industry. The Malays are content and satisfied with their place in the British Empire; and while the future of many parts of the East is obscure, here is a dependency where most prospects are bright.

CHAPTER IX

BRITISH BORNEO

THE great island of Borneo in the Malay Archipelago is shared to-day between Britain and the Netherlands. The Netherlands hold the major portion. Britain's protectorate stretches along the northern coasts, and consists of three divisions. First, in the extreme north comes British North Borneo, administered by the British North Borneo Company, the last and only remaining part of the British Empire to be governed in the old manner, which was once so widespread, namely by a chartered company. Second, comes the small native state of Brunei, which has a long and romantic history behind it, and is still ruled by its own Malay-Mohammedan Sultan, guided by the advice of a British Resident, appointed by the Imperial Government. Third, comes the country of Sarawak, whose hereditary Rajaship is held by the English family of Brooke, heirs of the famous Sir James Brooke, who brought peace, prosperity and good government to a land that had been torn by rebellion and harassed by pirates.

Portuguese, Spaniards and Dutchmen became acquainted with Borneo before Britain's interest in the island-country crystallized; and it is only during the last century that her connection with it has assumed a permanent character. As long ago as 1609 East Indian traders from England considered the advisability of obtaining a footing in Borneo; and, by 1698 an important British Settlement had grown up at Banjarmasin on the south coast. But shortly after that date

the Dutch tightened their grip on the country and made themselves all-powerful throughout the Archipelago. The Sultan of Borneo was persuaded to agree to a Dutch trading monopoly, and the British had to go.

In 1759 the East India Company obtained a concession on the North Bornean coast from the Sultan of Sulu and some years later tried to establish themselves in Balambangan Island, off the north-east corner of Borneo. But it was not a success; and after two years the attempt was abandoned. Then the Company secured a monopoly of the pepper trade, which had previously been held by the Portuguese and was in those days of considerable importance. But although they had set up a factory in Brunei, they were unable to hold their own and had to relinquish the enterprise in 1802.

For some decades after that Borneo was left to the Dutch. But they were unequal to coping with the serious internal disturbances and the devastating raids of the pirates. Conditions went from bad to worse until Britain reappeared on the scene in the person of James Brooke. At first he acted unofficially, as a private individual, but later received government backing. He restored order in Sarawak and became its white Raja, guiding it through many difficulties to peace and stability. In 1848 the island of Labuan, off the Borneo Coast, was acquired, effectively occupied and made a British colony. Between 1878 and 1882 the British North Borneo Company was formed, received its charter, and took over its concessions from the Sultans of Sulu and Brunei in the north-east. Finally, the shrunken native State of Brunei itself accepted British guidance; and in 1888 the three states came formally under British protection. They have since progressed as separate entities, each working out its own destiny.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO

After the withdrawal of the East Indian Company from Brunei and Balambangan Island, the British had nothing to do with the coasts of Borneo until the coming of James Brooke to Sarawak in 1839. When he had defeated the pirates and made it safe for traders and colonisers to work in those waters, the island of Labuan was ceded and converted into a colony. This gave the British a base from which further enterprises could be launched, and enquiring eyes were turned upon the promising north-east corner of Borneo. In the past this territory had been partly under the Sultan of Sulu and partly under the Sultan of Brunei, and both rulers still claimed suzerainty over their respective portions. It was necessary, therefore, for British trading interests to be conciliatory and obtain legal concessions in return for acceptable consideration.

In 1878 a British syndicate was formed in which the moving spirit was Alfred Dent, afterwards knighted, who persuaded the Sultan of Sulu to cede those parts of North Borneo which his ancestors had held for generations. A company was formed, one member of which was Admiral Sir Harry Keppel, who as a young naval officer had assisted Rajah Brooke to drive the pirates from Sarawak. The company took over the concession granted to the syndicate, and with the style of the British North Borneo Company applied for and received a charter from Queen Victoria in 1881. The conditions laid down were that the company must remain British and that the religion and customs of the native inhabitants must be respected.

When the British North Borneo Company entered upon the administration of their domain, there were

some protests from the Dutch, supreme in the Malay Archipelago, and from the Spaniards, who then owned the Philippines. Their objections were met, and the Chartered Company went on to extend their territory by further concessions from the Sultan of Brunei.

Because of possible complications with foreign powers, a British Protectorate was declared over the northern part of Borneo in 1888, which included Sarawak, Brunei, and "the State of North Borneo." The Crown took over external affairs, while the Chartered Company remained in control of the internal administration of their territory, except that the Governor chosen by the directors of the company sitting in London to represent them in Borneo was to have the approval of the Colonial Secretary.

Further acquisitions from the Sultanate of Brunei in 1898 created, to the general surprise, considerable ill-will among the natives. There were deeds of violence which could not be tolerated, and action on the Company's part was essential. One leader of the disaffected portion, by name Mat Saleh, caused no end of trouble. He defied the Company's forces for years and profited by the director's disinclination to use the heavy hand against him. Eventually, his attitude became so defiant and aggressive that energetic measures were decided upon. Mat Saleh was pursued into his lonely and difficult stronghold in the Tambunan district, his defences were beaten down, and he himself was killed. Since that year, 1900, the natives of North Borneo have been won to friendship, and the Tambunan district itself has been successfully settled.

The developments since those days have been important. In 1904 some 200 square miles of territory were ceded to Sarawak in exchange for coal-mining

rights in Brunei Bay. In 1907, Labuan, which was under the Company's jurisdiction for some years, was transferred to the Straits Settlements. In 1909-1910 what looked like a crisis in the Company's affairs was averted by the great rubber boom, when large areas of land were taken up by new concerns, with immense profit to the State.

The Great War only touched North Borneo economically, and recovery after the peace was speedy. There was some trouble with the natives in the far interior in 1915, when what was known as the Rundum rebellion broke out. But the forces on the spot were equal to the occasion, and no further threat of serious native outbreak has ruffled the Company's rule. Although many of the British colonies, and among them the earliest, were floated under the Charter System, the British North Borneo Company is to-day the only one that continues to exercise its administrative powers. It does so under North Borneo's own flag, which consists of the Union Jack, with the Borneo Badge—that is, a red lion on a yellow ground—in the centre.

British North Borneo has a coastline over 900 miles in length. The country is the size of Scotland and supports about 300,000 inhabitants. These consist mainly of the Malay-Mohammedans, who live on the coastlands. Inland, where the country is very mountainous—Mount Kinabalu is nearly 14,000 feet high, and there may be even higher peaks—and where the forests and jungle are very dense, there are Bornean aboriginal tribes. Much of the skilled and agricultural labour is performed by the intelligent and industrious Chinese. The Europeans are a tiny community, for the hot, damp climate is severe on the white man and makes strenuous labour an impossibility.

The tropical jungle of the interior provides many varieties of useful timbers, which are North Borneo's most valuable natural products and play a part in the export trade second only to rubber. In this same jungle wander big game, providing sport for the hunter - elephants, rhinoceros, wild cattle, deer, crocodiles, and many others. The tropical plants, too, are exceptionally beautiful, and one cannot omit a mention of the rare orchids.

British North Borneo is mainly agricultural, with its prosperity depending largely on rubber. There are, in addition, a host of jungle products; and the new manila hemp industry, cigar leaf tobacco, and canned and dried fish all help to swell the volume of trade, which is carried on mostly with the Empire through Hong Kong and Singapore. A curious medium of exchange common among the natives of the interior is the large earthenware jar. These jars originally came from China, and both tribes and individuals hold them as their chief form of wealth in the same way as African natives own cattle.

The capital of British North Borneo is Sandakan on the east coast, with a population of 14,000. Here the Governor resides. It has a good harbour, 15 miles long by 7 broad. As far back as 1872 the Labuan Trading Company, the forerunner of the Chartered Company, established itself at Sandakan. The second town in importance is Jesselton on the west coast, which is connected with Sandakan by a trunk road across country. Jesselton is the terminus of the State's railway, which travels along the coast to Beaufort, the centre of the rubber industry, and then turns inland to the important commercial town of Melalap. The dependency, once rather isolated, is now linked closely with

the rest of the Empire through the modern miracle of wireless.

BRUNEI

The Sultan of Brunei was once upon a time a mighty potentate, who included in his domains a large part of what is now British North Borneo and the whole of the territory of Sarawak. When Magellan, the famous Portuguese navigator, anchored off the town of Brunei in 1521, he and his party were greatly impressed by the splendour of the Sultan's court and the wealth and magnificence of his capital.

The Sultan and the majority of his subjects are Malays and Mohammedans, but the State also includes a number of aboriginal Bornean tribes, such as the coastal people, the Kadayans, the Orang Bukits, and some Muruts. It is clear that not less than six centuries ago there was a Malay invasion, probably from Sumatra, which overcame the low-type natives, who were not organised for resistance. Like their victims, the Malays were then pagans, but became at a later date converts to Islam.

Following the visit of Magellan, there was, later on in the 16th century, a Spanish occupation of Brunei. But the native efforts made to dislodge them needed such costly defensive measures that the place was evacuated, Spain being more interested in a share of the spice trade than in territorial acquisitions. Yet Brunei never recovered its former glory. Internal strife, misgovernment, too much luxury and sensual pleasure caused a decline, in which the old will^o to power was lost. By the 19th century Brunei had lost control of its subject states, and the Sultan was willing enough to

resign them into competent British hands. He accepted the British protectorate in 1888, and in 1906 agreed to hand over the general administration to a British Resident.

Through a series of concessions the one-time powerful Sultanate of Brunei has now shrunk to a mere 2,500 square miles—a little less than Lincolnshire. Of its 34,000 people, Malays and Bornean races, nearly one-third live in the town of Brunei, which even to-day is one of the largest on the north coast of Borneo. The capital stands on the shores of Brunei Bay, but is almost entirely enclosed by the islands lying in the delta of the Limbang river, into which many smaller rivers flow. The situation is an attractive one, for the town has a background of hills cleared of jungle, while in the distance are heights crowned with magnificent forests. Brunei has been called "the Venice of the East." The description is both appropriate and inappropriate. It is appropriate because the old town is built over the waters of the bay and river and stands on slender piles of nibong palm, chosen because it resists the ravages of water. Small native canoes dart in and out of these piles, and might be likened in their service to the Venetian gondolas. The comparison to Venice is inappropriate because, instead of the stately architecture of the Italian city, Brunei is composed of dilapidated houses of wood, untidily thatched with palm. Since 1910 a new and modern town of Brunei has been growing up on the mainland. The capital has several native industries, including boat-building, for which the Malays have a talent, cloth-weaving, brass and silver ware.

The climate of Brunei is the same hot and moist variety met with in many parts of Borneo. The Europeans do not find it much to their liking, but the

Chinese are comfortable and here, as elsewhere in Malaya, render important services to the community. Brunei has valuable timber reserves, and grows a long list of agricultural products, notably sago, which thrives in the river valleys. From the exporter's point of view the most paying lines are crude oil, rubber and cutch. Cutch is an extract from the bark of the mangrove tree, which is used in tanning and dyeing. The women of Brunei are noted for their weaving of a very beautiful cloth shot with gold thread. Many of the Malays are engaged in the occupation so common with men of the race, that of fishing.

Brunei maintains connection with the rest of the Empire through a regular service of steam launches with Labuan, which is only forty-three miles away; and most of its produce find its way to the great distributing centres of Hong Kong and Singapore.

SARAWAK

One of the most romantic episodes in the long story of the British Empire is concerned with Sarawak. It is the story of a young Englishman, who, appalled at the conditions prevailing in the Bornean State, set out on his own responsibility to right them, and ended by becoming the Raja and handing down the throne to his successors.

In the early 19th century Europeans paid little attention to Sarawak, then the most southern province of the Sultanate of Brunei. There were sound reasons for this. On the coast there was an absence of good harbours, and during most of the year the surf lashed the shore and made approach difficult and dangerous.

Then other parts of Borneo, where excellent spade work had been done through many centuries by the Chinese, seemed to traders and adventurers so much more worth while. By 1839 Sarawak looked even less attractive than before, for the Bornean tribes were in open rebellion against the Sultan and his Malay officials, whose misgovernment had produced conditions no longer to be borne.

The situation was entirely out of hand. In spite of measures by the Sultan's forces, the revolutionaries resisted successfully at Blidah Fort in the Siniawan district. It seemed that this defiance of all authority would go unpunished until the man who was destined to be the tribes' white Raja appeared on the scene.

James Brooke was born at Bath and in his teens entered the employ of the East India Company. He served in the Burmese War of 1825-6 and was dangerously wounded. He returned home and ultimately left the company, inheriting a considerable fortune from his father. He decided to travel, and voyaged through the East Indian Archipelago to China. He was much struck with the natural beauty of the islands, which he felt was in dismal contrast to the savagery of the inhabitants, who were forever fighting among themselves and indulging in orgies of piracy. He was consumed with an ambition to rescue the people from their state of barbarism and bring peace and order into their lives in order that they might enjoy the blessings that were theirs for the taking.

Back once more in England, Brooke equipped a yacht and trained a special crew for the work he had in mind. He sailed from the Thames in October, 1838, and arrived in Borneo the following summer to find the Sarawak rebels holding Raja Muda Hassim, uncle of

the reigning Sultan of Brunei, and his forces at bay. Brooke offered his help and with the assistance of him and his crew, reinforced by some Japanese, the revolt was crushed. In the following September Muda Hassim resigned in Brooke's favour, and the Englishman became Raja of Sarawak. The appointment was confirmed, after some hesitation, by the Sultan.

Raja Brooke was now in a position to carry out his reforms. His first step was to consolidate his own power, and this done, he introduced just and humane methods of government and won the confidence of his uncivilised subjects. He realised that future progress would depend on the development of commerce, and that white traders would never be attracted in adequate numbers to his country until piracy was suppressed. This, then, was his immediate task.

The whole of the north coast of Borneo had been for long subject to destructive raids by large fleets of pirate ships. Malays of Borneo, Sea-Dyaks of Sarawak, Sulus, and others had swept the seas with a ferocity against which the peaceful merchantman was helpless. Neither Spaniard nor Dutchman had succeeded in curbing their fury, and the British had adopted an attitude of complete indifference. In fact, much of the pirates' booty was actually disposed of through the young settlement of Singapore. But the day of reckoning had come at last.

Raja Brooke, until now playing a lone hand, sought and obtained the help of his countrymen in his campaign against the pirates. Captain Keppel, afterwards Admiral Sir Harry Keppel, and other officers commanding British warships in those waters received official permission to co-operate with the White Raja. An attempt was made to come to terms with the pirate

chiefs, but this proved futile. The only course was to attack them, and attack them not only on the high seas, but in their lairs. Expedition after expedition was sent against them. The pirates resisted with the violence of despair. The slaughter was sickening. But the Malays and Dyaks were expelled from their haunts in the Saribas and Batang Lupar rivers, and the fleets of the Sulu freebooters were dispersed and destroyed. In 1843-4 the pirate menace was lifted from Sarawak.

Raja Brooke's domain was very much smaller than the Sarawak of to-day. The Sultan of Brunei has been persuaded to make further cessions from time to time; and whereas Brooke became ruler of a country measuring about 7,000 square miles in area, his great-nephew now governs a dominion comprising 50,000 square miles with a coastline of over 500 miles. The extension of the boundaries has occurred mostly since Raja James Brooke's death, but he began the process and persuaded the Sultan to cede Labuan to Britain in 1846. He was actually the first governor of the colony.

On his return to England in 1847 Brooke found his work appreciated, and received many honours including the K.C.B., the freedom of the City of London and an honorary degree of D.C.L. from Oxford University. Soon after his return to Sarawak he ran into more trouble.

For generations before the coming of the British to Borneo the Chinese had been working the gold in Upper Sarawak. They considered the situation had lately altered to their disadvantage, and in alliance with pirate members of their race, attacked Raja Brooke's capital of Kuching. They carried the town and sacked it, killed some of the English residents, and destroyed by fire Sir James's own house. The Raja himself had

to fly for his life, and control passed into the Chinese hands. But the triumph was short-lived. Raja Brooke, energetically supported by his nephew, Charles Johnson Brooke, afterwards Raja, quickly raised a force of Malays and Dyaks in the Batang Lupar district and turned the tables on the Chinese. The usurpers were slain in great numbers, and Kuching was recovered.

The story of Sarawak since those days has largely been that of acquisitions of new territory. Between 1861 and 1884 large additions were made. Notable among them was the districts occupied by the Kayan and Kenyah tribes, who proved turbulent subjects of Brunei, but were pacified by Raja Brooke. The complete independence of Sarawak was recognised in 1864. It was no longer an appendage of Brunei even in name. Four years later Sir James Brooke died in England, June 11th, 1868, and was succeeded as Raja by his nephew, Charles Johnson Brooke.

In 1888 the British Protectorate over the whole of northern Borneo, including Sarawak, was declared; and at last, in 1904, the position of the Brooke family as hereditary Rajas was formally recognised by King Edward VII. In 1890 the opportunity was taken of a revolt of the people of the Limbang river against the Sultan to make the influence of Sarawak felt and add the district to the raj. In 1905 the important basin of the river Lawas was acquired by purchase from the British North Borneo Company. In 1917 Sir Charles Vyner Brooke succeeded his father as Raja.

The present Raja Brooke has nearly half a million subjects. They are a very mixed population. In the towns and coastal villages the people are mostly Malays. In Borneo it is customary for Europeans to call all the Bornean inhabitants other than Malays, Dyaks. There

are, however, many other races. We have the Land-Dyaks and Sea-Dyaks, who are not ethnologically related. The Sea-Dyaks, once fierce pirates, feared as wild head-hunters, are now a law-abiding, hard-working set, staunch supporters of the White Raja. There are other tribes—Kayans, Kenyahs, Muruts, who live in the half-explored interior. The Chinese play their habitual useful part; but the European community is small.

The country inland is mountainous, and three great ranges cut Sarawak off from the rest of Borneo to the south. Mountains, again, form the eastern boundary, some of the peaks reaching a height of 10,000 feet. Most of the country is covered with forest, huge, mysterious, treasure-stored, but almost impenetrable. In such a country the rivers are naturally numerous and form the only practicable highways through the jungle. Most of the towns and villages of Sarawak are located on their banks.

A fine stream is the Rejang, up which steamers can sail for 160 miles. On it stands the town of Sibu. Further progress is blocked by rapids, but above them small boats can travel for another 500 miles. The Rejang delta, 1,200 square miles in area, is a vast swamp which during the north-east monsoon is often wholly flooded. Yet it has a good-sized population, for here conditions suit the cultivation of the sago-palm. Other rivers are the Baram, navigable for 100 miles, the Batang-Lupar, a great river but of little use to craft, the Limbang, and the small stream which gives the country its name and on which the capital, Kuching, stands, the Sarawak. Kuching lies about 23 miles upstream, which is as far as the river is navigable. The town has a population of about 25,000, mostly Malays. After Kuching and Sibu, the town of Miri, the head-

quarters of the Sarawak Oilfields Company, ranks next in importance.

The climate of Sarawak is not unpleasant. The temperature varies between the limits of 70 and 95 degrees in the shade. The nights are cool. The seasons are very clearly divided into two—the wet and the dry. The wet, the period of the north-east monsoon, extends from October to March, when storms are common and most of the annual 200 inches of rain falls: the dry, the period of the south-west monsoon, lasts from April to September, when fine weather may develop into drought conditions.

The products of Sarawak are diverse and valuable. The sago-palm is extensively cultivated in swampy river deltas and along the coast. From the pith of the palm the natives obtain a crude kind of sago which is shipped to the factories in Kuching, run by the Chinese, who convert it into sago flour and export it. Rubber is a success; coal is worked; gold exists; and at Miri and Bakong in the Baram district is a large petroleum field which has fast become one of the country's most valuable assets. Hundreds of thousands of tons of oil are exported every year, the government collecting a royalty on the output. Among the varied assortment of articles which Sarawak produces, interesting items are opium, edible birds' nests, pepper, cutch, and many products of the jungle.

After a century the White Raja is still seated firmly on his throne with a title that is undisputed. He rules by the aid of a Supreme Council composed of four Europeans and seven Malay officers. There is also a General Council of fifty members, made up of European and Malay officials and Native Chiefs, meeting every three years. The Civil Service contains

ninety British officials who are appointed by the sovereign. What a strange thing it is that a private English gentleman should have won for himself and his family a throne and a kingdom on the other side of the world! But, perhaps, it is stranger still that the mixed population of Sarawak should have accepted his rule with goodwill and satisfaction.

CHAPTER X

THE PACIFIC

HONG KONG

HONG KONG, or "the Place of Sweet Waters" to give the translation of its Chinese name, is another instance of Britain's colonising genius, imagination and foresight. By the same magic touch with which she conjured Singapore out of a jungle swamp, she has changed a desolate island off south-east China into a flourishing colony, with a handsome, modern city as its capital, a fortified naval base to maintain her power, and a great emporium of trade to bring prosperity to all connected with it.

The enterprise of the East India Company in developing a trade between Canton and Bengal first drew British attention to the commercial opportunities of China. When the Company was deprived of its monopoly in 1833, the British merchants, who had established themselves in Chinese territory, were left unsupported, and the Chinese mandarins did not hesitate to take mean advantage of them. Hardships were inflicted which could not be tolerated, and this led among other things to the hostilities between Britain and China, known as the Opium War. The East India Company had traded in opium, and the Chinese demanded that its importation be stopped. When Britain agreed, China made further and insolent

demands which could only be answered by a display of force.

During the Opium War, 1839-42, the British fleet made use of the sheltered sheet of water between the island of Hong Kong and the mainland as its base of operations. The experience convinced the far-sighted imperialists that here was a site potentially of immense strategic and commercial importance. The water area was ten square miles; there were entrances to the secure anchorage east and west; it commanded the mouth of the Canton river, along which trade flowed into Canton for distribution throughout Southern China; and the ground would lend itself to strong fortification. One of the results of the war, therefore, was the cession to Britain of the island of Hong Kong, until that time an integral part of China.

The place was then almost uninhabited. A few fisherfolk frequented its shores, and pirates counted it among their favourite haunts. It seemed, in truth, a barren place, unattractive and of little value.

Britain began at once to convert this unpromising-looking site into one of the greatest ports in the world. The island is mountainous—Victoria Peak rises to over 1,800 feet—and it was easy for the military engineers to render it well-nigh impregnable, for in those days there were no aircraft to provide against. Round the island, which is some 32 square miles in area—10½ miles at its longest and from two to five miles in width—a fine military road has been built. First-rate docks have been provided, and there is a ship-repairing as well as a construction plant. Hong Kong could have been developed into a mighty naval base such as Britain now owns at Singapore, but one of the important provisions of the Washington Naval Treaty of 1921 was

an undertaking between Britain, the United States and Japan not to construct new fortifications in the Pacific. Britain, at any rate, has kept her word.

But it was not as a naval base only that the British visualised the bare, rocky island they had taken over. They intended to profit by its situation astride the Far Eastern trade routes to develop it as a great commercial centre. Wisely, they made it a free port, and it went ahead by leaps and bounds. The goods for all that vast and thickly populated region of China supplied by Canton began to flow through Hong Kong. Rice was the chief article. China must import it in huge quantities to enable her people to live; and soon the port was handling an increasingly large percentage, until 85 per cent. of the total rice import was passing through its hands. The rice was sent to Hong Kong mostly from Indo-China; and when crops were bad, Japan herself was supplied by the British colony. To-day the port is the chief centre of rice distribution for the whole world.

Hong Kong holds a unique situation in the Empire because trade that passes through its docks is not imperial trade. The business done by Britain herself with her colony is comparatively small. The port is the great mart for the countries of the Far East, and its prosperity depends on conditions prevailing in those countries and not necessarily on the prosperity or otherwise of the British Commonwealth. Thus the fall in trade that has hit Hong Kong of recent years, causing a decline in shipping to merely a third of the previous annual tonnage, has been due largely to causes outside Britain's control: the long civil wars in China; the political and commercial friction with Canton; the anti-foreign boycott of the Communist Cantonese; the drop

in the exchange value of the Chinese tael; and, to crown all, the Japanese invasion of South China and the isolation of the colony. Given again a settled and free China, Hong Kong would reach and even surpass her records of the past.

The capital of the Colony of Hong Kong is the City of Victoria. There are many Victorias in the Empire, and consequently people often speak of "Hong Kong" when they really mean the capital. Victoria is an achievement of which our nation may be proud. Apart from the docks and shipyard and the military fortifications, here is a fine, modern town which, because of the series of terraces on which it is built, looks particularly attractive as one approaches it from the sea. It is constructed on three levels. Running for five miles along the shore-line of the grand harbour, and facing the mountainous mainland opposite, is the shipping, business and Chinese quarter. Higher up the hill are the government buildings and parks; and the highest of all is the residential district and summer colony known as the Peak. The name covers all the hill-tops where the Europeans have their houses and bungalows, in order to escape from the hot and damp conditions which maintain down in the city. The population of Victoria to-day is about 383,000 exclusive of the garrison.

There were further hostilities between Britain and China in the middle of last century, and at their close Britain decided, on strategic grounds, to acquire the Kowloon Peninsula, jutting out from the mainland opposite, and constituting a threat to Hong Kong. By the Treaty of Peking, 1860, this headland, about three square miles in area, was added to the British colony. In 1898, in order to obtain additional security, part of the Province of Kwangtung, adjoining the Kowloon

Peninsula, was leased by China to Britain for a term of 99 years. The area was about 356 square miles, and the frontier was fixed on the Sham Chun river. This new acquisition was not only useful from the point of view of defence: it already had a population of 90,000 Chinese, and provided an outlet for those Chinese citizens of the colony who were overcrowding the limited space on Hong Kong itself. Moreover, the new territory was a potential source of raw materials for trading purposes and industrial uses in the shipyard. The Kowloon lease brought the area of the colony up to 390 square miles—a little larger than the country of Huntingdon. The population to-day exceeds a million.

Hong Kong has suffered queer turns of fortune. War has often interfered with its prosperity. There was a serious decline in trade following the close of the American Civil War, when the price of cotton fell sharply on an increased supply becoming available. There was a stride forward when the Suez Canal was opened, and Europe was brought nearer to China. Indeed, the tonnage of shipping using the port was quickly quadrupled as a result. A great gain to the colony was the building of the railway from Kowloon to Canton to supplement the river trade route. The $22\frac{1}{4}$ miles to the Sham Chun boundary belongs to Hong Kong: the remaining 70 miles to the north is the property of the Chinese government. In 1938 this artery was cut by the troops of Japan.

Much has been done for "the desolate rock" by an enlightened policy of afforestation. Hong Kong has lost the bare appearance it used to wear, and is now fairly wooded. The chief tree is the pine, but there are several others, including the eucalyptus. Not beauty only, but soil preservation and water conservation have

been objects of the planting. The trees are a help to better climatic conditions. Hong Kong was once considered decidedly unhealthy, but the Europeans now live there in much greater comfort, particularly in the Peak district. It is hot from May to October, and visitors are recommended to choose the invigorating winter months, from November to March, when it is cooler and drier. The south-west monsoon prevails from May to September, and those months contain about seven-eighths of the total annual rainfall.

Hong Kong is a crown colony under its own Governor, who is assisted by an Executive Council of nine. There is a Legislative Council, on which the Chinese population are represented. Hong Kong is Britain's only possession in China to-day. She once held a lease of the northern port of Wei-Hai-Wei, but this has now expired, and the territory has been returned. She owns important concessions in Shanghai, where the International Settlement is largely of her making, and she has vast trading interests in the great land of China and millions of capital invested in many of the provinces, but these are not under her flag. It is from Hong Kong that she must keep a vigilant eye upon all her powers and properties in the Far East and face the challenge of the growing strength and expansionist policy of Japan, who aims to build a new order in China, from which, if she has her way, the nations of Europe will be excluded.

Fiji

In this age of air-travel, when the great liners of the clouds speed over all continents and oceans, the islands of the Pacific have assumed a new importance. In this region Britain has more reason than ever to be grateful

to her pioneers and empire-builders, for to-day she has under her flag many valuable and useful groups of islands, which are likely to play a prominent part in the future development of world communications.

The chief of Britain's Pacific possessions is Fiji. The colony consists of a group of 250 islands, situated about 1,150 miles north of New Zealand. Many of the islands are little more than bare rocks, and only 80 of them are inhabited. Indeed, by far the greater part of the land area consists of the two large islands of Viti Levu, or Great Fiji, and Vanua Levu, or Great Land. Whereas the total of the colony is some 7,000 square miles, these two islands alone account for over 6,000 of them. Viti Levu is nearly twice as large as Vanua Levu.

The Fiji Islands are really very beautiful, the vegetation having all the colour and richness of the tropics. The lofty peaks, volcanic in origin, reach in places a height of 4,500 feet. The rivers and streams are numerous. The coral reefs, girdling the islands, are not, as in so many cases, hindrances to shipping, but have passages, which are easily negotiated, into the many excellent harbours found in nearly all the chief islands. The climate is pleasant enough and has been found healthy for Europeans. The average temperature varies from 72 degrees in the cool season to 84 in the hot, which, considering the nearness of the islands to the Equator, is most moderate.

The population of the colony is approximately 205,000. About half this number are Fijians. There are nearly 90,000 Indians, who have come to Fiji for work on the sugar plantations. About 4,500 are Europeans and some 5,000 are of mixed Europeans and native descent.

Among the Fijians the classes are very clearly marked. The chiefs and aristocrats are fairer and more handsome and intelligent than the lower orders, who are dark-skinned and somewhat savage-looking. All the race are tall and well made physically. They wear very scanty clothing and seem to have little use for ornament. At one time they had an ugly reputation as cannibals; and human sacrifices and cruel practices, including the custom of killing off the sick and aged when they became a burden, caused a shudder whenever their name was spoken. But things have changed during the years of British rule. Their old ancestor-worship has given place to Christianity. Over two-thirds of the Fijians have been converted, mostly by Wesleyan and Roman Catholic missionaries. The fierce civil wars and bitter blood-feuds have faded out, but even to-day the villages of the interior are heavily stockaded, a reminder of the turbulent times of the past. Polygamy, once the universal custom, was largely responsible for this internecine warfare. Nowadays peaceful conditions have given the natives of Fiji the opportunity to develop their many talents. They have always been good agriculturists, skilful boat-builders, expert sailors and fishermen; and their women make some of the best pottery found in the South Seas. They fashion their weapons as deftly as they fashion their implements. Spears, bows and arrows, clubs, and slings were their armament from distant ages. They knew much about irrigation. Their houses are built on an ingenious plan of a timber framework filled in with thatch and lattice. They show considerable taste in the matter of decoration and furnishing, and supply their own mosquito nets, mats, baskets, and other necessities. Few people have progressed so rapidly from barbarism towards

civilisation as have the Fijians during the last sixty years.

As a trading centre the Fiji Islands have immense possibilities. They are well situated on the Pacific routes from Australia and New Zealand to North America, and are already an important station on the imperial cable and mail lines. The opening of the Panama Canal has greatly helped the expansion of Fijian commerce. The exports from the colony consist chiefly of the profitable tropical products of sugar, copra, bananas and fruits, while many other lines are cultivated for home consumption.

The most interesting chapter in the history of Fiji was the persistent demand of the islands' inhabitants to be taken over by Britain, and the reluctance of the British Government to accept the offer of sovereignty until further refusal had become well-nigh impossible. Down the centuries the islands were visited by famous navigators—Tasman, Cook, Captain Bligh of the *Bounty*, Dumont d'Urville the Frenchman—but up to 1835, Europeans would have little or nothing to do with them, so terrifying was the character attributed to the Fijians. This, however, did not deter the brave Wesleyan missionaries, who came supported by a following of native converts from the Tonga Islands. Working under immense difficulties, they obtained wonderfully good results and were successful in stamping out some of the more revolting heathen practices.

Out of a confused native situation, the chief Thakombau emerged as the chief power in Fiji. He was a gifted leader, but found himself confronted with difficulties with which he could not cope. The United States were demanding compensation for an injury to their consul. The Tongans, who had followed the

Wesleyan missionaries in increasing numbers, had an able chief of their own, who was challenging Thakombau's position as overlord. In 1859, therefore, Thakombau offered the sovereignty of the islands to Britain on condition that she settled with the American Government and compensated himself. This offer was refused, much to the annoyance of Australia and New Zealand, who possessed what was in effect a trade monopoly in Fiji.

During the next decade the number of settlers from Australia and New Zealand rose from 200 to 1,800. They were attracted to Fiji by the hope of greater opportunities, for a cloud of dark depression had settled over their own colonies. This white community tried on its own to organise a system of self-government, but met with poor success. Accordingly, in 1874, the sovereignty was again offered to Britain, this time without conditions; and as nearly all the white people on the islands were of British stock, it was accepted. The step was a wise one, for the United States, France and Germany had all come to recognise that Fiji was a convenient half-way house in the Pacific.

Trade was in the doldrums when the islands were taken over, chiefly on account of the fall in the price of cotton now that America, freed from her civil war, was again a large producer. Attempts were made to establish other crops, mostly with indifferent success. But sugar was planted, and coolies from India imported to labour on the estates; and when workings were undertaken on an extensive scale by large interests, profits began to be made. To-day the Colonial Sugar Refining Company controls the whole industry in Fiji, the Indians farming small holdings under its supervision.

In 1880 the island of Rotuma, 300 miles from Fiji,

was annexed to the colony. It was discovered in 1791 by Captain Edwards of the *Pandora* and is valuable chiefly for its copra. It is a thickly-wooded island, about 14 square miles in area, and is surrounded by coral reefs. The inhabitants have a reputation as born sailors.

The Fijians have been contented under British rule. In 1924 the jubilee of the islands as a crown colony was celebrated at the old native capital of Levuka. Then the same "lali" or native drum was beaten by the same old chief who beat it in 1874 to announce the change of sovereignty. This time it opened the rejoicings. The Fijians, for ages torn by bitter strife, placed themselves under Britain for the sake of peace, and for half a century their peace had been practically unbroken. In token of their gratitude and loyalty the people sent to King George V a large tabua, or whale's tooth.

The capital of Fiji is Suva on the south coast of Viti Levu, or Great Fiji. It is a town built mostly of wood and has a population of 16,000 with about 2,000 Europeans. Here, 11,000 miles from London, lives the Governor of the Colony, who is also the High Commissioner for the British possessions in the Western Pacific. He is assisted by an Executive Council of seven members. He also presides over a Legislative Council of 16, consisting of five Europeans, three elected and two nominated, five native representatives selected by the Governor from names submitted to him by the Great Council of Chiefs, and five Indians, three elected and two nominated. The Fijians enjoy a large measure of self-government. The native administration is carried on through their own chiefs under the supervision of the Governor. It is a sensible arrangement,

for the social system of Fiji is somewhat rigid, and a man's land, trade, rules of conduct and whole mode of life are inherited from his fathers and, according to native custom, most strictly adhered to. The smooth working of this conservative sociology under the benevolent guardianship of Britain has proved satisfactory and beneficial to all parties.

THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

The many groups of islands, which Britain owns in the Pacific Ocean, are under the general jurisdiction of a High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, who controls all territories not within the limits of Fiji, Queensland or New South Wales, or those administered by Australia, New Zealand, or other civilised power. The appointment is held by the Governor of Fiji in addition to his major office. He himself resides at Suva, the Fijian capital, and his functions are exercised through British Commissioners resident in the various dependencies.

TONGA

The Tonga Islands, sometimes still called the Friendly Islands, the name given to them by Captain Cook, lie about 400 miles to the south-east of Fiji. They consist of three different groups. Two of them, named Tongatabu and Haapai, are low-lying formations of coral, while the third, Vavau, is high and hilly. There are also a number of scattered, outlying islands, which sometimes appear or disappear on account of volcanic action and tidal waves. The whole area is a little more than

that of the Isle of Wight and Isle of Man combined, and the total population is about 33,000, including 350 Europeans and 500 half-castes.

Tonga is a kingdom under British protection and is ruled over by Queen Salote, who succeeded her father in 1918. She governs through a Prime Minister, who happens to be her husband, a small cabinet composed equally of Tongans and Europeans, and a Legislative Assembly. Her treasury issues its own currency, and her post office its own postage stamps.

Queen Salote's subjects are a branch of the Polynesian race, and probably the most intellectual of all the Pacific Islanders. They have exerted considerable influence over their neighbours, particularly in Fiji. They are courteous and amiable to strangers, a fact that made Captain Cook's choice of the name, Friendly Islands, inevitable. They treat their women well and are very fond of their children. They are proud in demeanour and brave in battle, but they have a preference for enjoying life and taking things easily. If one is looking for a leisurely existence, where all is calm and tranquil, where there is never a suggestion of hurry, he could not do better than settle in Tonga. He will find there a climate that is dry, cool as compared with Fiji, and agreeable to Europeans.

The Tongans are good sailors and fishermen, and excel in the building of their boats and houses. Their soil is fertile, and apart from fishing and livestock, they rely on the coco-nut and banana for making a living. The chief article of export is copra. They have a considerable overseas trade, chiefly with Australia and New Zealand.

One inhabitant of the Tonga Group deserves a mention to himself. He is a venerable turtle, who is

astonishingly old. When Captain Cook visited the islands in 1777 he left the turtle behind him, as there are authentic records to show. It is not known how old he was then, but he is still so strong and vigorous that he can move along with two men standing on his shell. Although he is at least 170 years old, he seems still to have many years of life before him.

Several of the early navigators touched at the Tonga Islands in the exciting days of exploration. Tasman was there in 1643, and Cook in 1777 stayed seven weeks. For a long period the internal condition of Tonga was very confused due to revolution and civil war. In 1845, however, a leader emerged, who became king under the name of George Tubou I. He opened his kingdom to the missionaries, who had for several years been trying to establish themselves in the islands and were working under stupendous difficulties. These missionaries added political propaganda to their religious activities and succeeded in persuading the king to grant the Tongans a constitution. A Wesleyan missionary actually became Prime Minister and established friendly relations with Britain, the United States and Germany. As, however, he was a good deal less friendly towards his religious opponents, he had to be removed from office by the British High Commissioner.

King George Tubou I died in 1893 at the good old age of 96. He was succeeded by his great-grandson, George Tubou II. Up to 1899 Tonga, according to an agreement among the powers, was recognised as a neutral region; but in 1900 a treaty was made with the king, with the approval of the United States and Germany, by which a British protectorate was established. Under the flag, Tonga has gone peacefully on its way.

The capital of Queen Salote's kingdom is Nukualufa, on the island of Tongatabu, the largest of the group. Here is a sign of the new civilisation in the forty miles of paved roads which connect the seat of government with other settlements. But the speed of progress in Tonga Island is not likely to disturb the most comfortable conservative.

THE GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS

The island groups composing this dependency lie almost due north of Fiji and are scattered over hundreds of miles of the Pacific. They were proclaimed a British protectorate in 1892, but in 1915 were formally annexed to the Empire at the request of the native governments themselves and constituted a British colony. The area is about 180 square miles, and the population 34,000, of whom only about 300 are European.

The Gilbert Group to the north consists of 16 islands, with several islets and rocks of coral formation attached to them. They lie right across the Equator, and account for most of the land area of the colony and the bulk of the population. The chief island is called Taputeneā, though it is sometimes known by its English name of Drummond Island. The group was discovered by John Byron in 1765. He found the inhabitants of a dark, coarse type, fairly tall and rather stout. They have changed little since then. They wear no clothes except for a conical hat which they make out of pandanus leaves. They are quite at home on the sea, and their canoes are neatly constructed. When it comes to fighting, they are unpleasant opponents with their swords armed with shark's teeth.

The Ellice Islands, to the south of the Gilberts, consist of nine small clusters and are spread out over a distance of 400 miles. Nearly all the 4,500 natives are Christians. They speak the Samoan language, and according to their own account of themselves migrated from Samoa thirty generations ago. Recent researches have confirmed their story. They are mostly busy with the cultivation of coco-nuts, pandanus and yams.

Ocean Island, or Paanopa, lies outside the main groups, to the west of the Gilberts. It is a small island six miles in circumference, and was proclaimed British in 1901. Here are the seat of the colonial government and the home of the Resident Commissioner. Two-thirds of the Europeans, and nearly all the 500 Asiatic inhabitants of the colony live on Ocean Island. It is exceedingly rich in high grade phosphates, which are worked by the British Phosphate Commission, appointed by government.

Fanning Island and Washington Island, 66 miles from Fanning, were added to the Gilbert and Ellice Islands colony in 1916. They have a small European community of between forty and fifty, who are for the most part on cable duty, and about a score of Asiatics and 250 islanders engaged in the copra industry.

Christmas Island—not to be confused with the Christmas Island of the Indian Ocean, which is attached to Singapore—was included in the Pacific colony in 1919. It was discovered by Cook on his 1777 voyage and was annexed in 1888. It is the largest atoll in the Pacific, measuring a hundred miles in circumference. It has been leased to Pacific Coco-nut Plantations Ltd. for 87 years from January 1st, 1914.

THE PHOENIX ISLANDS

East of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands colony and north-east of Fiji, lies the Phoenix Group, consisting of eight small islands, which were annexed to Britain between 1889 and 1892. They have a population of only three score or so, and a land area of 16 square miles. Recently they have acquired added importance as a possible commercial air base in the Pacific, for which they are conveniently situated between Australia and America. In 1938 Canton and Enderbury Islands were occupied by American expeditions with this end in view, on the ground that Britain had forfeited her right to them by failing to take effective occupation. Canton Island is indeed most suitable for conversion into an air base, for it possesses a land-locked lagoon, 7 miles long by 3 wide, which would be an ideal landing-place for aircraft. By an agreement signed in 1938 a joint Anglo-American régime was established in Canton and Enderbury Islands, under which both powers enjoy an equal and free use of their facilities.

THE BRITISH SOLOMON ISLANDS

Lying to the east of New Guinea are the Solomon Islands, which before the World War were divided between Britain and Germany. The German, or northern, half of the group were, after the Peace Treaty, taken over by Australia to be governed under a mandate from the League of Nations. The southern, or British, share of the Solomons has been a protectorate of Britain since 1893. It then included the islands of San Cristoval, the most southerly, Malaita, Guadalcanâr with its huge Mount Lammas 8,000 feet high, New Georgia, and a

number of smaller isles. In 1898-99 Santa Cruz, a group of small islands to the east of the Solomons, was incorporated in the Protectorate. Germany, in 1900, transferred to Britain the large islands of Choiseul and Ysabel, discovered and named by French navigators in the 18th century, which lay to the north of the British Solomons. The transfer also included some small islands in the Bougainville Straits as well as Lord Howe's group.

The total area of the Protectorate is now 15,000 square miles and the population about 94,000. The Europeans number only about 500, for the climate is damp and debilitating, and not attractive to the white man. The natives are Melanesians, but of a somewhat mixed type. Physically most of them are short and sturdy, and still more or less in a state of barbarism. Cannibal practices have not been eradicated, and the condition of the women is that of slaves.

Nevertheless, the natives of the Solomons are good agriculturists. The islands are fertile; and coco-nuts, rubber, sweet potatoes, bananas and pineapples are some of the fruits of the earth which they produce. The export trade is mainly in copra. The mountains are clad with forests, and sandalwood is abundant. The seat of government is Tulagi, a small island lying off the fertile and undulating island of Florida, which rests snugly between its big neighbours, Malaita and Guadalcanar.

PITCAIRN ISLAND

Far distant from other British possessions in the Pacific lies the remote island of Pitcairn. It is situated in the mid-eastern ocean, and unlike most of its fellows, is not circled by coral reefs, but rises steeply out of the

sea, with high and rugged cliffs reaching at the highest to 2,000 feet. The island is only about two square miles in area, and is without streams. But, its origin being volcanic, the soil in the valleys is fertile.

Pitcairn Island is associated with one of those stirring romances so common in the history of the British Empire. It was discovered in 1767 by Philip Carteret, who named it after one of his midshipmen, actually the first man to spot it. It was then uninhabited and remained so for the next twenty-three years. In 1789 came the famous mutiny on the *Bounty*, when the warship, under the command of that sternest of disciplinarians, Captain Bligh, was conveying bread-trees from Tahiti to the West Indies. Led by Fletcher Christian, the crew rebelled against the harsh methods of the commander. Bligh and those loyal to him were set adrift, and the remainder of the crew, some 25 in number, returned to Tahiti.

It was clear that if they remained there, it would be only a matter of time before punishment overtook them. Some preferred to risk it, and were ultimately court-martialled. Others, under Christian, resolved to try to escape the penalty of their insubordination. Thus eight Englishmen, six Polynesian men and twelve Polynesian women sailed in the *Bounty* to Pitcairn Island, far away from anywhere. In 1790 they took possession of their beautiful home, but the life they led there was debased and shocking, and ten years later all the men were dead, except one, John Adams. Left to rule as a sort of patriarch, Adams rose to the occasion, trained up the children well, and guided the little community through what must have been a precarious existence. No one knew what had happened to the mutineers of the *Bounty* until 1808, when an American ship discovered the

existence of this unusual settlement. Other ships, mostly British, called, and newcomers joined the colony. One of these, George Hunn Nobbs, succeeded Adams as leader when the patriarch died in 1829.

In 1830 the riverless island was threatened with drought, and the Pitcairn settlers removed to Tahiti. But they thoroughly disapproved of the climate there, as well as the loose behaviour of the inhabitants, and soon returned to their isolated home. A few years later they fell under the tyrannous rule of an adventurer named Joshua Hill, who claimed authority to govern them. But in 1838 Hill was quietly but forcibly removed by a British warship, and the islanders were left in peace until 1856. In that year the whole colony, about 200 souls, were shipped for their own good to Norfolk Island; yet two years later about 45 die-hards returned once more to Pitcairn.

A few British immigrants, but no Polynesians, have brought new blood to the colony during the last 80 years. There are now a few more than 200 of the Islanders, and the great majority are descended from the mutinous seamen of the *Bounty* and the Tahitian women they took to wife. Intermarriage and inbreeding brought gloomy prophecies about the inevitably poor quality of their descendants, but these have been falsified. The Islanders are sound in body and mind, worthy offspring of their progenitors, the tough sailors of Britain's navy and the beautiful, healthy girls of Tahiti. They are good-natured and hospitable folk, speaking a patois of their own as well as the English, which became, strangely enough, considering that the women survived all the men save Adams, the language of the colony. * English, however, is spoken with an accent that is Pitcairn's own. In religion the people

are Seventh Day Adventists, keeping the old Sabbath instead of the Christian Sunday.

Pitcairn Island was British by right of settlement, and after the condition of the colony had been favourably reported upon, it was placed under the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific in 1898. There is a local council of five, elected by the people, which deals immediately with island affairs. A certain amount of agriculture is carried on for the production of fruits, chiefly oranges, and vegetables. A particularly good line is the coffee, which is excellent. Wild goats and chickens are the chief livestock in this, one of the strangest colonies owned by any nation.

THE NEW HEBRIDES

The New Hebrides group lies between the Solomon Islands and Fiji. It is the Empire's second condominium—the first is the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan—and is under the joint administration of Britain and France and governed according to the terms of the Anglo-French Convention of 1906. This agreement laid down the conditions for land-holding, labour employment, and the adequate safeguarding of the various interests of British, French and native inhabitant. The supreme British authority is the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, who works through a Resident Commissioner. The arrangement is admittedly clumsy. Both the French and English languages are official, and this duplication is repeated in many administrative departments. It is not disputed that France is the more energetic partner, and the suggestion has been made that British interests would benefit if Great Britain resigned her place in favour of Australia.

The islands have had an interesting history. The renowned Portuguese explorer, Fernandez de Quiros, reached them in 1606, and, believing that he had discovered the Great South Land of tradition, named the largest island, Australia del Espiritu Santo. In 1774 Captain Cook reached the group and gave them their present name of the New Hebrides. Missionaries, explorers, and traders, the last-named after the sandalwood and other products, brought the islands a certain importance by the middle of last century. Those settlers, who had won a footing on the main islands, besought both Britain and France to annex them. Neither power was willing, and the group was declared neutral ground in 1878. The settlers, both British and French, increased; they quarrelled among themselves; the natives were restless; trading interests were jeopardised; and the whole unsatisfactory chain of circumstances led the two powers to reverse their previous decision and agree to bring the islands under their joint administration.

The area of the group is considerable: 5,700 square miles. The largest island, Espiritu Santo, is itself the size of Warwickshire. There are three active volcanoes, on the islands Tanna, Ambrym, and Lopevi, and earthquake shocks are fairly common. The scenery is most picturesque, especially when viewed from the sea. Lopevi, the loftiest peak, is over 4,700 feet. The climate, hot and damp, is not recommended for Europeans, particularly during the months from November to April.

There are nevertheless nearly 1,000 white people in the New Hebrides, most of them in the capital, Port of Vila, formerly called Franceville, on Efaté Island. The natives number about 50,000. They are of Melanesian stock with black skins, woolly hair and thick lips. Little

progress has been made in civilising them. They are always fighting among themselves, using their bows and poisoned arrows. They are wild and treacherous, with cannibals still active among them, and are believers in witchcraft and sorceries. The women hold a position of degradation, and widows are often buried alive with their dead husbands.

The French subjects outnumber the British by four to one, for France has attempted to ease the labour difficulty by importing men from her colony of Indo-China for work on the plantations. Most tropical plants will grow in the islands; and coffee, cocoa, cotton and copra are exported. There are some splendid trees, and plenty of them. It was sandalwood that first brought traders to the spot. But the New Hebrides are capable of much greater development than anything seen up to the present, for the real resources of the group have barely been scratched.

NAURU

Nauru, sometimes called Pleasant Island, is administered jointly by Britain, Australia and New Zealand under a League of Nations' Mandate. It is a circular atoll, 12 miles in circumference, and lies west of the Gilbert Islands and about 26 miles south of the Equator. There are roughly 3,100 people on the island, consisting of 200 Europeans, 1,650 natives and over 1,200 Chinese. Nauru was annexed by Germany in 1888, and fell to an attack by the Australian Navy in September, 1914.

The whole importance of Nauru lies in the island's valuable deposits of phosphates. Except for a small amount of copra, these account for the entire export.

The phosphates occur on an extensive inland plateau and are worked by the British Phosphate Commission, which pays a royalty to the Nauru government. It will be recalled that the phosphates on Ocean Island in the Gilbert and Ellice Islands colony are controlled by the same commission. Its forerunner in both places was the Pacific Phosphate Company. The company was bought out by the British, Australian and New Zealand Governments in 1919, and the present commission created, which consists of three members appointed by these governments. The output is divided in proportion to the monies invested in the enterprise.

Britain owns a number of other islands and groups of islands in the Pacific, but they are of no great importance. Some, such as Ducie Island, attached to Pitcairn, Dudoza Island, Victoria Island, Starbuck Island, Palmyra, and the Baker Group, are either uninhabited or else can boast no permanent population. Others, such as Jarvis Island on the Equator, support only a score or so of people. The Malden Group is larger, 35 square miles in area, with 160 inhabitants; and are held for their guano. It is possible that with the increase of air lines across the Pacific a new value will accrue to these isolated possessions.

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